# CHAPTER VII.

## HISTORY.



Early History.

BELGAUM has none of the rock temples, and, so far as is known, none of the inscriptions which in so many parts of Western India determine the rulers of the country during the centuries before and after the Christian era. But, chiefly through the labours of Mr. J. F. Fleet of the Bombay Civil Service, for the history of the eight hundred years ending with the close of the thirteenth century, materials in the shape of thirty stone and nine copperplate inscriptions have been discovered, deciphered, and translated.

Early Kadambas, A.D. 500.

As far as present information goes, the oldest place in the present district of Belgaum is Palasige, Halasige, or Halsi ten miles south-east of Khánápur and twenty-three miles south of Belgaum. Seven copperplates found within three miles of Halsi show that about the fifth century after Christ it was the capital of a dynasty of nine Kadamba kings.[1] Almost all these early Kadamba plates begin and end with a Jain salutation, and, except one which records a grant of land to a private person, all record grants of land or of villages in furtherance of the Jain religion. Five of the plates mention Palásika or Halsi and one records the building of a Jain temple at Halsi.

The later Early Hindu history of the district, till the Musalmán conquest in the beginning of the fourteenth century, belongs to four periods: An Early Chalukya and Western Chalukya period lasting to about A.D. 760; a Ráshtrakuta period from about A.D. 760 to A.D. 973; a Ratta period (850-1250) during which the district was directly governed by a dynasty of Ratta chiefs at first as feudatories of the Ráshtrakutas and the Western Chálukyas and then (1170) of their own authority till their final conquest by the Devgiri Yádavs about 1250; and the fourth or Devgiri Yádav period from 1250 till their overthrow by the Muhammadans about 1320.

Though no inscriptions or copperplates of the Early (550-610) or of the Western Chalukyas[2] (610-760) have been found within

[1] The exact date of the early Kadamba dynasty cannot be fixed as the plates contain no reference to any known era. Still, from the fact that the plates are all in the Sanskrit language, and in the Western India Buddhist cave alphabet characters not yet developed into old or Hála Kánarese, and from the allusions which they contain to contemporary events the plates may be approximately assigned to about the fifth century. Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 9-10.

[2] The name Chalukya is derived by tradition from *chulka*, *chuluka*, or *chaluka*, a waterpot, from which their ancestor is said to have sprung. This appears to be a late story, as though *chulka* a waterpot may be the origin of the later forms of the name Chálukya in the Deccan and Chaulukya in Gujarát, it cannot be the origin of the early name which is written Chalkya, Chalikya, and Chalukya. They claim to belong to the Soma-vansh or lunar race and mention a succession of fifty-nine kings, rulers of Ayodhya and after them sixteen more who ruled over the region of the south. The names of seven early Chalukya kings have been found who reigned from about 550 to 610. In 610 the Chálukya dominions were divided into an eastern kingdom whose head-quarters were Vengi in the delta of the Krishna and the Godávari, and a western kingdom whose head-quarters are believed to have been at Bádámi in Bijápur. Of this western branch called the Western Chalukyas the names of six kings have been found who ruled from 610 to 760 about which time they were overthrown by the Ráshtrakutas. Details are given in Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 17-30.

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Belgaum limits, the large number of Early and Western Chalukya inscriptions which have been found in Dhárwár and Kaládgi and the mention of their sway over the Kuhundi or Kundi Three Thousand make it almost certain that the Early and Western Chalukyas held the Belgaum district.[1] About 760 when the Ráshtrakutas overthrew Western Chálukya sovereignty, Belgaum, or the Kuhundi Three Thousand, passed with the rest of the Chalukya dominions to their conquerers. Though no inscriptions recording gifts by Ráshtrakuta kings have been found within Belgaum limits, a trace of Ráshtrakuta power and dominion long survived in the Ratta Great Circle Lords or Mahámandaleshvars.[2]

Rattas, 850-1250.

This family, for about 350 years, first as feudatories of the Ráshtrakutas (875-973), then as feudatories of the Western Chálukyas (973-1170), and then apparently of their own authority, until their conquest by the Devgiri Yádavs about 1250, held the government of the Kuhundi or Kundi Three Thousand. Their capital was Sugandhvarti the modern Saundatti in Parasgad, forty miles east of Belgaum, and afterwards (1210) Venugrám or Velugrám the modern Belgaum. Their inscriptions have been found at Belgaum in the Belgaum sub-division, at Bhoj and Sankeshvar in Chikodi, at Kalhole and Konnur in Gokák, at Badli Saundatti and Sogal in Parasgad, at Bail-Hongal Hannikeri Nesargi and Sampgaon in Sampgaon, at Mulgund in Dhárwár, at Khánápur and Ráybág in Kolhápur, and at Lokápur on the Belgaum-Kaládgi road about sixty miles north-east of Belgaum.[3] These inscriptions throw much light on the Ratta system of administration. Territorial divisions are mentioned, varying from a group of six to a province of twelve thousand villages, as the Nesargi Six, the Saundatti Twelve, the Hubli Twelve, the Banihatti Eighteen, the Venugrám or Belgaum Seventy, the Belvola Three Hundred, the Konkan Nine Hundred, the Kundi Three Thousand, the Palasige or Halsi Twelve Thousand, and the Banavási Twelve Thousand. Among the different grades of officials mentioned, the *Mahámandaleshvar* or *Mahásámanta* the Great Lord of the Circle, the *Mandaleshvar* or *Sámanta* the Lord of the Circle, and the *Dandnáyak* or Commander of the Forces appear as the local representatives of the reigning monarch; the *Rájguru* or royal spiritual preceptor with his counsellors appears as minister under the three chief officials; a *Náyak* appears in charge of a circle of villages; and, finally, the *Gávundu* or village headman

[1] The Kuhundi or Kundi district of three thousand villages, a division of the Kuntala province, included the greater part of the Belgaum district and the native states to the north of it, and the south-western parts of the Kaládgi district. Dynasties of the Kánarese Districts, 20 note 1.

[2] It is not certain whether the Ráshtrakutas were northerners or a family of Rattas or Reddis the widespread tribe of Kánarese husbandmen who were formerly the strongest fighting class in the Karnátak and Maisur. Mr. Fleet seems to incline to a northern origin and to trace the name to Ráshtrakuta or Ráshtrapati, a title meaning a district head who is subordinate to some overlord. But it seems not improbable that the Ráshtrakutas were Rattas or Reddis, and that the main branch when they rose to supreme power Sanskritised their name, while the side branch of Rattas kept their original name. The names of twenty-two Ráshtrakuta kings have been found the seventh of whom Dantivarma II. overthrew Western Chalukya power about 760. His fifteen successors were powerful sovereigns who ruled till 973 when the last of their race Kakka III. was defeated and slain by the revived Western Chalukyas, better known under the slightly changed name of Western Chálukyas. Details are given in Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 31-38.

[3] Journal Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society, X. 167-278.

appears sometimes with a council of traders in charge of each village. The modern *taraf, kariyát, mahál, táluka,* and *pargana* represent the division of the country into circles of specified numbers of villages, and the present hereditary district and village officers represent the lowest of the old grades of functionaries.[1] In some of their inscriptions the Rattas call themselves Ráshtrakutas; and in one or two passages they profess to belong to the lineage of the Ráshtrakuta Krishna II. (875-911). In the majority of instances they use the name Ratta, and were probably (like the Ráshtrakutas) a local division of the Reddi or Ratta caste. They were of the Jain religion. They held the title of *Lattalur-puravar-ádhisvara* or *Lattanur-puravar-ádhisvara,* Supreme lord of Lattalur or Lattanur, the best of cities. Their banner was a golden Garud or man-vulture, their mark was redlead, and their musical instrument was the *trivali* or three-stringed harp.[2]

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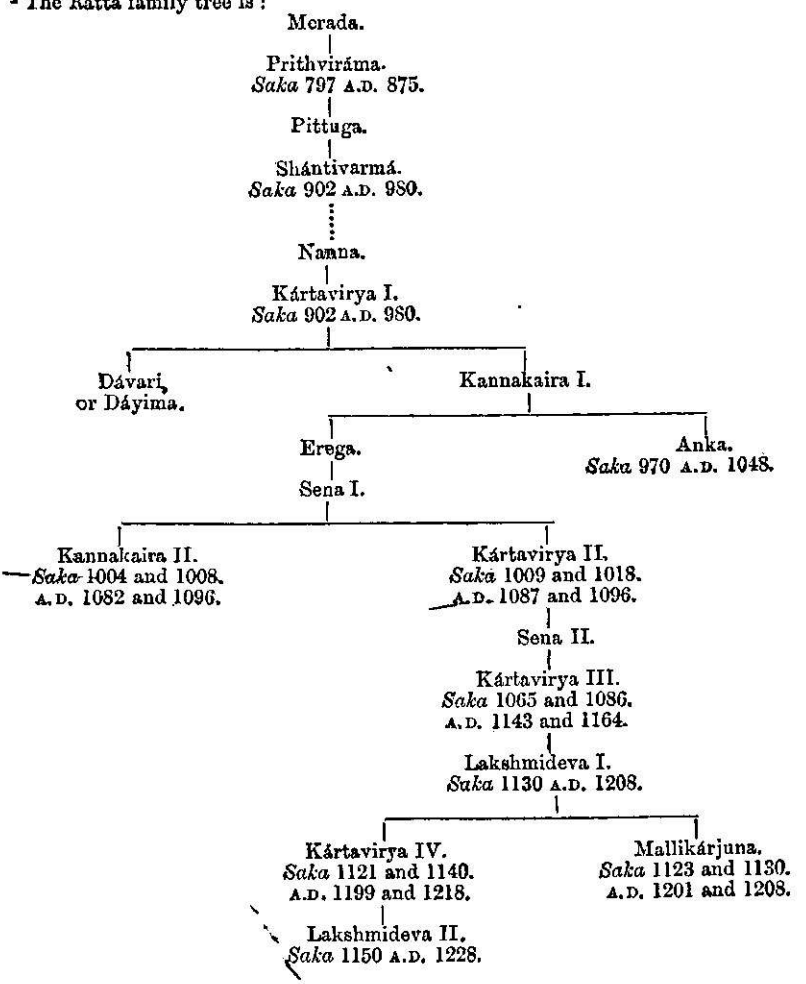
[1] Journal Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society, X. 118 note 2.

[2] The Ratta family tree is :



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Rattas, 850-1250.

Merada and his son Prithviráma were originally teachers of the Jain Káreya sect of the holy Mailápatirtha. About A.D. 875-6[1] (*Saka* 797) Prithviráma was invested with the rank and authority of a *Mahásámanta* or *Mahámandaleshvara* by the Ráshtrakuta king Krishna II. Of Pittuga, the son of Prithviráma, except that he repulsed a certain Ajavarmá, and that his wife was Nijikabbe or Nijiyabbe no record remains. Pittuga's son, Shántivarmá or Shánta, whose wife was Chandikabbe, is described in an inscription found at Saundatti and dated 980-1 (*Saka* 902, the Vikrama *samvatsara*),[2] as a feudatory of the Western Chálukya king Taila II. (972-997).[3] The inscription records a grant of land to a new temple of Jina built by Shántivarma in Saundatti and notices a gift of two pounds (4 *sers*) of oil from each oil-mill for the lamp of the god at the festival of *Dipávali* in October-November. After Shántivarma a break in the genealogy leaves nothing to show in what relation he stood to his successor. Of Nanna, also called Nannapayyarána, no details are known. Of Nanna's son Kártavirya I. or Katta I., one inscription has been found at Sogal fifteen miles north-west of Saundatti. It is of the same date (A.D. 980-1) as the inscription of his predecessor Shántivarmá, and records that Katta was governing the Kundi country as the feudatory of the Western Chálukya king Taila II. (973-997). Another and later inscription again speaks of Katta as the feudatory of Taila II. (973-997), who is mentioned by his title Áhávamalla I. It also records that Katta fixed the boundaries of the Kuhundi or Kundi country. Of Dávari or Dáyima, Kannakaira I. or Kanna I., and Erega or Eraga, no inscriptions have been found. Of Anka two inscriptions occur at Saundatti. One of them is the first part of a tablet which also bears a later inscription. It is dated A.D. 1048-9 (*Saka* 970, the Sarvadhári *samvatsara*), and records that Anka was a feudatory of the Western Chálukya king Someshvar I. (1042-1068). The other inscription in which Anka is named is a fragment of the same date. Of Sena I. or Kálasena I., and his wife Mailáladevi, no details are known. His eldest son, Kannakaira II. or Kanna II., is mentioned as one of the feudatory *Mahámandaleshvaras* in a Bijápur grant dated A.D. 1082-83, of the Western Chálukya king Vikramáditya VI.[4] Kanna II. is also mentioned as a feudatory of the same king and of his son Jayakarna, in an inscription at Konnur near Gokák dated 1087-8 (*Saka* 1009, the Prabhava *samvatsara*).[5] Kanna seems to have been alive and to have remained in power, with his younger brother Kártavirya II., up to 1096-7 (*Saka* 1018, the Dhátu *sumvatsara*), as one of the Saundatti inscriptions mentions him in connection with that date.[6]

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[1] Journal Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society, X. 194; Páli Sanskrit and Old Kánarese Inscriptions, No. 88.

[2] Journal Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society, X. 204.

[3] This is the earliest mention that the over-lordship had passed from the Ráshtrakutas to the Western Chálukyas. As Shántivarma's successors down to Sena II. (about A.D. 1128) continued feudatory to the Chálukyas, this part of the country seems like Dhárwár to have passed back from the Ráshtrakutas to the Chálukyas towards the end of the tenth century. [4] Indian Antiquary, I. 80.

[5] Journal Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society, X. 287; Páli Sanskrit and Old Kánarese Inscriptions, No. 93.

[6] Ditto, 194; Pali Sanskrit and Old Kánarese Inscriptions, No. 88.

Of Kártavirya II. or Katta II., who was also called Senana-Singa or the Lion of Sena and his wife Bhagaladevi, four inscriptions remain. These are a dateless fragment at Saundatti, whose preamble shows that Katta held office under the Western Chálukya king Someshvar II. (1068-1075);[1] a second at Saundatti dated 1087-8 (*Saka* 1009, the Prabhava *samvatsara*); a third at Vatnál four miles north of Saundatti dated either in the same or in the following year; and the already mentioned Saundatti inscription of A.D. 1096-7. Of Sena II. or Kálasena II., and his wife Lakshmidevi, no details are known. Of Kártavirya III. or Kattama, and his wife Padmaladevi or Padmávati, four inscriptions have been found, two at Khánápur in Kolhápur dated 1143-4 (*Saka* 1065, the Rudhirodgári *samvatsara*) and 1162-3 (*Saka* 1084, the Chitrabhánu *samvatsara*);[2] one at Bail-Hongal six miles east of Sampgaon dated 1164-5 (*Saka* 1086, the Tárana *samvatsara*);[3] and one at Konnur, the date of which is effaced.[4] In the Khánápur inscription Kattama is described as the feudatory of the Western Chálukya king Jagadekamalla II. (1138-1150), and in the Bail-Hongal inscription, as having been the feudatory of Taila III. (1150-1162) of the same dynasty. In the Konnur inscription Kattama has the title of *Chakravarti* or Emperor. This title and the fact that Kattama's descendants, though they keep the title of *Mahámandaleshvar*, speak of themselves as enjoying sovereignty or *sámrájya*, show that Kattama took advantage of the confusion that prevailed during the last years of the Chálukya dynasty (1153-1164) to establish himself as an independent ruler.

Of Lakshmideva I., Lakshmana, or Lakshmidhara, whose wife was Chandaladevi or Chandrikádevi, one inscription remains at Hannikeri about six miles north-west of Sampgaon, dated 1208-9 (*Saka* 1130, the Vibhava *samvatsara*). This inscription has the first mention that the Ratta capital was moved from Sugandhavarti or Saundatti to Venugrám or Belgaum, and that, in addition to the Kundi Three-thousand, they held the Belgaum Seventy, which they seem to have won from the Goa Kádambas (1000-1250). This inscription speaks of Lakshmideva I. as a descendant of the Ráshtrakuta king Krishna II. to whom it gives the title of *Kandhára-puravarádhisvara* that is Supreme lord of Kandhárapura, the best of cities, probably the modern Kandhár in the Nizám's territory about 125 miles north-east of Sholápur and 120 miles north of the Ráshtrakuta capital of Málkhet.[5] Kandhár may have been one of the original Ráshtrakuta cities; but so far no other mention of it has been traced. Of Kártavirya IV. and his brother Mallikárjun, who reigned with him as heir-apparent or *Yuvarája*, seven inscriptions have been found, one at Sankeshvar fifteen miles south-west of Chikodi, dated 1199 (*Saka* 1121, the Siddhárthi *samvatsara*) and

[1] Journal Bombay Branch Royal Asiatic Society, X. 213.
[2] Sir Walter Elliot's MS. Collection, II. 547 and 548.
[3] Indian Antiquary, IV. 115.
[4] P. S. and O. C. Inscriptions, No. 94; Burgess' Third Archæological Report, 103.
[5] Ferishta (Brigg's, II. 349) mentions Kandhár as one of the leading cities, where, in 1380, the fifth Bahmani king Muhammad I. (1378-1397) founded orphan schools. The other six places were Bidar, Chaul, Dábhol, Daulatabad, Ilichpur, and Kulbarga.

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1202 (*Saka* 1124, the Dundubhi *samvatsara*);[1] one at Ráybág fifteen miles north-west of Chikodi, dated *Saka* 1124 for 1123 (A. D. 1201), the Durmati *samvatsara*;[2] two, which were formerly at Belgaum but are now lost, dated *Saka* 1127 for 1126 (A.D. 1204), the Raktákshi *samvatsara*;[3] one at Kalhole seven miles north-east of Gokák, of the same date;[4] one, a copper-plate grant, at Bhoj near Chikodi, dated *Saka* 1131 for 1130 (A.D. 1208), the Vibhava *samvatsara*; and one at Nesargi seven miles north of Sampgaon, dated *Saka* 1141 for 1140 (A.D. 1218), the Bahudhánya *samvatsara*.[5] The dates of his earlier inscriptions show that Kártavirya IV. first shared the government with his father Lakshmideva I. His wives were Echaladevi and Mádevi or Mahádevi. Of Lakshmideva II., who is also called Boppansing or the Lion of Boppa, one inscription has been found at Saundatti; it is dated *Saka* 1151 for 1150 (A.D. 1228), the Sarvadhári *samvatsara*.[6] This is the last notice of the Rattas. Lakshmideva II. seems to have been the last of his race, and to have fallen before the rising power of the Yádavs (1150-1310) of Devgiri in the North Deccan.

Devgiri Yádavs, 1250 - 1320.

In 1228 the Yádav Singhana II. (1209-1247) appears making grants and setting up inscriptions near Kolhápur, in Bijápur, in the Torgal Six-thousand,[7] in the Belvola country, and in Dhárwár and Maisur. These grants are numerous enough to show that the country on the north, east, and south of the Kundi Three-thousand was subject to him, though, as is shown by the date of the inscription of Lakshmideva II., he had still left the Rattas unharmed. In 1249-50, Singhana's son Krishna is mentioned as holding the Kundi Three-thousand. The overthrow of the Rattas by Singhana's minister and general Vichana, which is recorded in a grant of the seventh Devgiri Yádav king Krishna, dated 1253, found at Behatti fifteen miles east of Dhárwár, must have taken place towards the close of Singhana's reign.[8] An inscription at Bágevádi ten miles south-east of Belgaum, dated 1249, mentions Krishna's minister Mallisetti as governing the Kundi country from Mudugal, the modern Mudgal in the Nizám's country eighty miles east of the Belgaum frontier, and another at Manoli six miles north of Saundatti, dated 1253, mentions Krishna's great minister Chaundráj, son of the Ratta conqueror Vichana, as in charge of the southern parts of his kingdom.[9] From 1253 the

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[1] Elliot MS. Collection, II. 561.
[2] Elliot MS. Collection, II. 564; Jour. Bo. Br. R. As. Soc. X. 182.
[3] Elliot MS. Collection, II. 571 and 576.
[4] Jour. Bom. Br. R. As. Soc. X. 220; P. S. and O. C. Inscriptions, No. 95.
[5] Jour. Bom. Br. R. As. Soc. X. 240.
[6] Jour. Bom. Br. R. As. Soc. X. 260; P. S. and O. C. Inscriptions, No. 89.
[7] One of Singhana II.'s inscriptions, dated 1223 (*S.* 1145) has been found at Manoli six miles north of Saundatti. It mentions Singhana II.'s commander Jagadala Purushottam as governing the Torgal Six-thousand. Jour. B. B. R. A. S. XII. 2, 11.
[8] Jour. Bom. Br. R. As. Soc. XII. 42.
[9] It is doubtful whether the Goa Kádambas (1000-1250) and their cotemporaries the Kádambas of Banavási and Hángal (1050-1203), who appear from their traditional origin to belong to the same family stock, were of local origin or were northerners. Compare Bombay Gazetteer, XV. Part II. 82-83. The successions of the Goa Kádambas are Guhalla, Shasthadev I. or Chatta, Chattala and Chattya (1007), Jayakeshi I. (1052), Vijayáditya I., Jayakeshi II. (1125), Permádi or Shivchitta (1147-1175), Vijayáditya II. or Vishnuchitta (1147-1171), Jayakeshi III. (1175-1188), Tribhuvanmalla, and Shasthadev II. (1246-1250). Fleet's Kánarese Dynastics, 90.

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History.
Goa Kádambas, 1000-1200.

Devgiri Yádavs held Belgaum till their final overthrow by Mubárik Khilji about 1320.

Inscriptions found in various parts of the district, at Belur, Degámve, Gudikatti, Golihalli, Halsi, and Kittur, show that during the greater part of the twelfth and the early years of the thirteenth centuries the Kádambas of Goa (1000-1250) held part of the Halsi Twelve-thousand and the small division known as the Venugrám or Belgaum Seventy.[1] The earliest mention of the Goa Kádambas in Belgaum is in an inscription of the fifth Kádamba chief Jayakeshi II. at Narendra five miles north-west of Dhárwár, dated 1125, which mentions him as governing, among other districts, the Palasige or Halsi Twelve-thousand under the Western Chálukya king Vikramáditya VI. (1075-1126). About 1130 Jayakeshi II. was conquered by the third Hoysala king Vishnuvardhan(1117-1137) by whom the Halsi district is recorded to have been held for a time.[2] The sons of Jayakeshi II. were Permádi, who is also called Perma, Paramardi, and Shivachitta, and Vijayáditya II. who is also called Vijayárka II. and Vishnuchitta. Permádi had also the title of *Malavara-mári* that is the Slayer of the Malavas or Sahyádri tribes which corresponds to *Malaparol-ganda* one of the titles of the Hoysala dynasty. Vijayádidya II. had also the title of Vánibhushana or Sarasvatibhushana. The two brothers reigned together from 1147-4 (4248 *Kaliyuga, Saka* 1069, the Prabhava *samvatsara*). It was Permádi's wife Kamaládevi who built at Degámve three miles south-west of Kittur the small richly carved temple of the god Kamala-Náráyana and the goddess Mahálakshmi which contains three inscriptions of this family; this temple was built by Tippoja, the *sutradhári* or mason of the god Bankeshvaradev and the son of the mason Holloja of Huvina-Bágo probably Raybág in Kolhápur, and by Tippoja's son Bajoja.[3] The earliest of their inscriptions, at Golihalli a mile south of Bidi, is dated 1160-6, in the fourteenth year (*Saka* 1082, the Vikrama *samvatsara*); 1163-4 the seventeenth year (*Saka* 1085, the Svabhánu *samvatsara*); and 1172-3, the twenty-sixth year (*Saka* 1094, the Nandana *samvatsara*) of the reign of Permádi.[4] Permádi was then at his capital of Gove or Goa, ruling over the Konkan Nine-hundred, the Palasige or Halsi Twelve-

[1] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 73.

[2] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 66, 92. The Hoysalas, who are best known as the Hoysalas of Dvárasamudra in Maisur, ruled from about 1039 to 1312. Their name is also written Hoysana, Poysala, and Poysana. They belong to the lineage of Yadu and seem to be connected with the Yádavs of Devgiri (1189-1312) as they both have the family titles of Yádav-Náráyan and of Dvárávati-Puravarádhishvar, supreme lords of Dvárávati the best of cities, apparently Dvárasamudra, the modern Halebid in West Maisur. Vinayáditaya (1039) was the first of the family to secure any considerable share of power. The two chief men of the family were Vishnuvardhán from about 1117 to 1138 who was independent except in name, and Ballála II. (1192-1211) who overthrew the Kalachurya successors of the Chálukyas and also defeated the Yádavs of Devgiri. His son Narsimh II. (1233) was defeated by the Yádavs, and his great-grandson Ballála III. by Ala-ud-din's general Malik Káfur in 1310. They sustained a second and final defeat from a general of Muhammad Tughlik's in 1327. Their successions are: Vinayáditya (1047-1076), Ereyanga, Ballála I. (1103), Vishnuvardhana (1117-1137), Narsimh I., Ballála II. (1191-1211), Narsimh II. (1223), Someshvar (1252), Narsimh III. (1254-1286), and Ballála III. (1310). Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 64; compare Wilson's Mackenzie Collection, New Edition, 64.

[3] Jour. Bo. Br. R. As. Soc, IX. 294 [4] Jour. Bo. Br. R. As. Soc. IX. 296.

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Goa Kádambas, 1000-1200.

thousand and the Venugrám or Belgaum Seventy. The Bailur inscription four miles south-west of Kittur is dated 1167-8, the twenty-first year of his reign (*Kaliyuga* 4268, *Saka* 1089, the Sarvajit *samvatsara*); and also in his twenty-second year (the Sarvadhári *samvatsara*). One of the Halsi inscriptions records in the twenty-third year of his reign, 1169-70 (*Kaliyuga* 4270, *Saka* 1091, the Virodhi *samvatsara*), a grant of the village of Sindvalli in the Kálagiri sub-division of Halsi. One of the Degámve inscriptions in the twenty-eighth year of his reign, A.D. 1174-5 (*Kaliyuga* 4275, *Saka* 1096, the Jaya *samvatsara*), mentions Permádi as reigning at Gopakpuri or Goa, and making a grant of the village of Degámve in the Degámve sub-division of Palásika or Halsi.[1] Another inscription at Golihalli, dated 1175 (*Kaliyuga* 4283 or more correctly 4276, the Manmatha *samvatsara*), records that Permádi and his mother Mailáladevi were reigning at Gove. Of Vijayáditya II. only one inscription has been found. It is at Halsi, dated 1171-2 (*Kaliyuga* 4270 for 4272, the Khara *samvatsara*), and the twenty-fifth year of his reign, and records the grant of the village of Bhalaka in the Kálagiri sub-division of Palasi or Halsi.[2]

Permádi's successor was Vijayáditya II.'s son Jayakeshi III., who also had the title of *Malavara-mári* or Hill-men Slayer. Of his time two inscriptions have been found, a copper-plate grant at Halsi, which is dated 1187-8, in the thirteenth year of his reign, (*Kaliyuga* 4288, *Saka* 1109);[3] and a stone-tablet at Kittur, which is dated 1188-9, in the fifteenth year of his reign (*Kaliyuga* 4289, *Saka* 1110).[4] The copper-plate records that he established the god Ádivaráh in a temple in front of the already existing temple of Narsimh at Palásika or Halsi town, and gave to the idol the village of Kiri-Halasige, or the smaller Halasige, and a variety of other grants. His second inscription at Kittur contains an interesting account of a trial by ordeal. In consequence of a dispute regarding the ownership of a field between Shivshakti, the *Áchárya* or priest of the god Kalleshvardev of Kittur, and Kalyánshakti the *Áchárya* of the *Mulsthándev* or Place God, the two parties met before the commandant or *Dandanáyak* Ishvar, and agreed to put their claims to the test of the *phaladivya* or red-hot ploughshare. On Sunday the dark seventh of *Áshádh* (June-July) the claimants met in the presence of the principal villagers of Degámve, at the temple of the god Mallikárjun. Kalyánshakti declared that the field belonged to the *Mulsthándev* or Place God, while Shivshakti, holding a red-hot ploughshare in his hand, made oath that the field belonged to the god Kalleshvar. Next day, the leading villagers examined Shivshakti's hand and finding it unharmed, decided that the field in dispute belonged to his god Kalleshvar. Jayakeshi's successors lost the Kádamba territories in Belgaum. By 1208 even the small Venugrám or Belgaum Seventy had passed to the Rattas.[5]

*Trial by Ordeal, 1188.*

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[1] Jour. Bo. Br. R. As. Soc. IX. 266, 287. [2] Jour. Bo. Br. R. As. Soc. IX. 280.
[3] Jour. Bo. Br. R. As. Soc. IX. 241. [4] Jour. Bo. Br. R. As. Soc. IX. 304.
[5] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 82; see above p. 357.

Chapter VII.
History.
Delhi Emperors, 1294-1350.

Till 1294, with the title of emperor or *chakravarti*, Rámchandra, the ninth Yádav king of Devgiri (1271-1310), was supreme over the Deccan, Konkan, and Karnátak.[1] In 1294 a Musalmán army was for the first time led into Southern India by Allá-ud-din the nephew and afterwards the successor of Jelál-ud-din the first Khilji emperor of Delhi (1288-1295). Advancing by forced marches from Karah-Mánikpur on the Ganges, Allá-ud-din surprised Rámchandra, or Rámdev as Ferishta calls him, at Devgiri, took the city, and forced Rámdev to pay tribute and acknowledge the supremacy of the Khilji emperors of Delhi.[2] Between 1295 and 1306 the Yádavs were not again molested and seem to have continued overlords of the south. In 1306 Allá-ud-din, who, in 1295, had assassinated his uncle and usurped the Delhi throne, under his general Malik Káfur, sent a second expedition against Rámchandra who had become irregular in paying his tribute. Malik Káfur subdued a great part of the Marátha country, besieged Devgiri, and forced Rámchandra to submit.[3] Rámchandra returned with Malik Káfur to Delhi, was treated with honour, and was not only restored to his old government but was presented with fresh territory for all of which he did homage and paid tribute to Allá-ud-din.[4] Rámchandra died in 1310. He was succeeded by his son Shankar who was ill-affected to the Musalmáns. In 1310 Allá-ud-din sent an army under Malik Káfur and Khwája Háji to reduce Dvársamudra the capital of the Hoysala ruler Ballála III. (1290-1310). Leaving part of their forces at Paithan on the Godávari to overawe and hold Shankar of Devgiri in check, Malik Káfur and Khwája Háji marched south, entered and laid waste the Hoysala kingdom, defeated and captured Ballála III. and took and plundered his capital of Dvársamudra. In 1311 Malik Káfur returned to Delhi with rich spoils.[5] In 1312, as Shankar of Devgiri withheld his tribute, Malik Káfur entered the Deccan for the fourth time, seized Shankar and put him to death. He laid waste Mahárashtra and the Karnátak from Cheul in Kolába and Dábhol in Ratnágiri in the west as far east as Mudgal and Ráichur in the Nizám's country. He established his head-quarters at Devgiri, and from Devgiri realized the tribute of the princes of Telingana and the Karnátak and remitted it to Delhi.[6] Malik Káfur shortly afterwards returned to Delhi. During his absence Harpál, the son-in-law of Rámchandra, stirred the Deccan to arms, drove out a number of Musalmán posts, and restored the former Devgiri territories to independence. The troubles at Delhi, the assassination of Allá-ud-din (1316) by Malik Káfur and then shortly afterwards

[1] Fleet's Kánarese Dynasties, 74. The title of *chakravarti* or emperor is given to Rámchandra in a manuscript written in 1297 at Suvarngiri in the Konkan, probably Suvarndurg in Ratnágiri.

[2] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 307; Elphinstone's History of India, 332.

[3] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 367.

[4] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 367.

[5] The spoils included 312 elephants, 20,000 horses, 96,000 *mans* of gold, several boxes of jewels and pearls and other precious effects. During this expedition to the Karnátak no metal other than gold was taken. There were no silver coins; no person wore bracelets chains or rings of any metal but gold. All the plate in the houses of the great and in the temples was of beaten gold. Briggs' Ferishta, I. 365.

[6] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 379.

Chapter VII. History.

Delhi Emperors, 1294-1350.

Malik Káfur's own assassination, prevented the immediate reduction of the Deccan. In 1318 the emperor Mubárik (1317-1321) led an army into the Deccan, captured Harpál, and flayed him alive.[1] In 1327 the emperor Muhammad Tughlik (1325-1351) subdued the Karnátak even to the shore of the sea of Umán that is the Indian Ocean.[2] Among the noblemen who were appointed to govern the conquered country two were stationed within Belgaum limits, one at Hukeri about twenty-five miles and the other at Ráybág about forty-five miles north of Belgaum.[3] The Deccan and the Karnátak soon passed out of the hold of the Delhi emperors.

Vijayanagar.

About this time (1328-1335) a new Hindu kingdom was founded at Vijayanagar or the City of Victory, originally called Vidyánagar or the City of Learning, on the south bank of the Tungbhadra about thirty-six miles north-west of Belári. The founders were two brothers Hakka and Bukka of doubtful origin. By one account they were of the Yádav line; by a second account they were descended from under-lords of the Hoysala Ballálas; by a third account they belonged to the Banvási Kadambás; and by a fourth account they were shepherds or Kurubars and were treasury guardians of Pratápruda king of Varangal who was overthrown by the Musalmáns in 1323.[4] Hakka and Bukka were helped by a sage named Mádhav, the head of the great Smárt monastery of Shringeri in West Maisur, by whom Hakka was crowned as Harihar. By 1342 the power of Vijayanagar had spread to the Kánara coast, and two years later (1344), with the help of the chief of Telingana, Harihar seized the country occupied by the Musalmáns in the Deccan and drove them out, so that, according to Ferishta, within a few months Muhammad Tughlik's Deccan possessions were reduced to Devgiri, whose name in 1338 he had changed to Daulatabad or the City of Wealth.[5] Ferishta's statement that in 1344 the Musalmáns lost all their Deccan possessions except Daulatabad seems exaggerated. In 1347 among the new nobility or *Amir Jádidás*, whom the emperor summoned to Daulatabad and who revolted, were the *amirs* of Ráybág, Hukeri, and Bijápur.[6] Ferishta's statement that in 1347 Musalmán nobles held Ráybág, Hukeri, and Bijápur, together with the fact that till 1472 the Belgaum fort was held by a Hindu chief subordinate to Vijaynagar, shows that about the middle of the fourteenth century, Belgaum north of the Ghatprabha including Athni and Chikodi was in Musalmán hands and was part of the Deccan, and Belgaum south of the Ghatprabha was part of the Hindu kingdom of the Karnátak.

The Bahmanis, 1347-1489.

In 1347 the successful revolt of the new nobles against Muhammad Tughlik resulted in the founding of the Bahmani dynasty (1347-1490) and the separation of the Deccan from Northern India. The founder of the Bahmani dynasty was an Afghán, named Hassan Gangu, whose capital was at Kulbarga nearly midway between Bijápur

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[1] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 389. [2] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 413.
[3] Stokes' Belgaum, Bom. Gov. Sel. CXV. 11.
[4] Details are given in the Kánara Statistical Account, Bombay Gazetteer, XV. Part II, 96. [5] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 420, 427. [6] Briggs' Ferishta, I. 437.

and Haidarabad. Within a short period the whole country between the Bhima and Adoni or Adváni about forty miles north-east of Belári and between Cheul and Bidar, including the west Nizám's Deccan and Karnátak, the Bombay Deccan and the north Bombay Karnátak, and the central Konkan, was brought under the authority of Allá-ud-din the first Bahmani king (1347-1358).[1] In 1357 Allá-ud-din Bahmani divided his kingdom into four chief governments. His Belgaum possessions were included in the first of these divisions which stretched from Kulburga west to Dábhol in Ratnágiri and south to Ráichur and Mudgal. This was placed under Malik Seif-ud-din Ghuri.[2] Part of the Karnátak, as far west as the Kánara frontier, including south Belgaum, acknowledged as overlords the Vijayanagar kings. Thus, as before, the border line of the Deccan and the Karnátak continued to pass through the present district of Belgaum. The Bahmanis and the Vijayanagar kings kept up an almost constant rivalry. The usual seat of their wars seems to have lain beyond the limits of the Bombay Karnátak, and the record of their wars is probably one-sided as Ferishta dwells on Musalmán victories and passes over Musalmán defeats. In 1368 Bukka, the second Vijayanagar king (1350-1379) suffered a series of defeats at the hands of Muhammad Sháh Bahmani (1358-1375), the first Muhammadan sovereign who, in person, crossed the Tungbhadra and entered Vijayanagar territory. Ferishta describes the Vijayanagar territory of 1375 as comprising the sea-port of Goa, the fortress of Belgaum, and other places not included in the Karnátak proper.[3] The woods and hill forts of the Vijayanagar country, between the Krishna and the Tungbhadra, guarded it against foreign invasion, and the country was filled with a prosperous and loyal people.[4] In 1375 Mujáhid Sháh Bahmani (1375-1378) demanded from Bukka the Vijayanagar king the territory east of the Tungbhadra, the fort of Bankápur in Dhárwár, and other places among which Belgaum was probably included.[5] Bukka refused. In the war which followed he was driven through the forests to Cape Rámas in Goa, but successfully evaded capture.[6] Mujáhid Sháh then besieged Adoni or Adváni but without success. From Adoni, Mujáhid, under the advice of Malik Seif-ud-din Ghuri the governor of his south-west province, turned his arms against the forts from Goa to Belgaum and Bankápur, but here too he met with little success.[7] Taking advantage of the troubles which followed Mujáhid's assassination in 1378, the Vjayanagar king Harihar II. (1379-1401) completely defeated the Musalmáns. From 1378 to 1397 the country seems to have been at rest. This period of rest was followed by the awful ruin of the Durga Devi famine during which, beginning with 1396, twelve years are said to have passed without rain. The country became a desert and the hill forts and strong places fell from the Musalmáns into the hands of petty chiefs and leaders of bandits.[8] In 1398,

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[1] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 291.
[2] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 295.
[3] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 313; Scott's Deccan, I. 27.
[4] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 337-338.
[5] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 330; Stokes' Belgaum, 14.
[6] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 332.
[7] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 389.
[8] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 26.

Chapter VII.
History.
The Bahmanis, 1347-1489.

1406, 1417, and 1423 the Bahmani and Vijayanagar kings were at war, but the general limits of the two territories seem not to have been greatly changed. 1423 and 1425 were years of drought and famine.[1] During the first three-quarters of the fifteenth century the issue of the wars was in favour of the Bahmani kings.

Under Dev Ráya (1401-1451), Mallikárjuna (1451-1465), and Virupáksha (1465-1479) the power of Vijayanagar gradually waned. The Musalmáns claim that the wars in 1435 and 1444 reduced the Vijayanagar kings to be tributaries. Some disastrous campaign may have forced Vijayanagar to buy off the Musalmáns, but the little advance of the Musalmán borders shows that the permanent position of the two powers was not greatly changed.[2] In 1470 the capture of Goa by Máhmud Gawán Gilání, the prime minister of Muhammad Sháh Bahmani II. (1463-1518), was a severe blow to Vijayanagar.[3] In 1472 under orders from Virupáksha of Vijayanagar, Vikram Ráy Rája of Belgaum, helped by the Hindu chief of Bankápur in Dhárwár, made an attempt to retake Goa. Muhammad Sháh Bahmani put himself at the head of a large army and marched against Belgaum, which is described as a fortress of great strength, surrounded by a deep wet ditch, and near it a pass whose only approach was fortified by redoubts.[4] According to Ferishta Vikrama Ráy, who commanded the fort, at first asked terms which were refused. He then defended himself with great vigour and prevented Khwája Máhmud Gawán the Bahmani general from filling with wood and earth the wet ditch in which lay the chief strength of the fort. The besiegers then began to form trenches and dig mines, apparently at this time a new feature in Deccan warfare. Three mines were sprung and made practicable breaches in the fort wall. The breaches were at once stormed, and, in spite of a gallant defence and the loss of two thousand of the besiegers, Muhammad Sháh succeeded in gaining the ramparts. The inner citadel had yet to be carried, but Vikram Ráy despairing of success, disguised himself and was admitted to the Bahmani king's presence as a messenger from the Belgaum chief. In the king's presence he threw his turban round his neck and discovered himself, saying that he had come with his family to kiss the foot of the throne. Muhammad admiring his courage received him into his order of nobles. The new territories were added to the estates of Khwája Máhmud Gawán who had distinguished himself during the siege.[5] Dyámavva the guardian of Belgaum fort was taken out by the Musalmáns. In a small temple near the fort she is still worshipped once in twelve years, when, along with goats sheep fowls and cocoanuts, twelve buffaloes are sacrificed to her.[6] In 1472 and 1473 the country was wasted by famine. So many died or

*Siege of Belgaum, 1473.*

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[1] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 405. [2] Stokes' Belgaum, 17.
[3] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 485. According to Faria (Kerr, VI. 130) Goa belonged to the Moors of Honávar before it was taken by the Bahmanis; and according to other Portuguese chroniclers quoted by Mr. Fonseca (Goa, 125) Goa was independent of Vijayanagar between 1440 and 1470. [4] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 491.
[5] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 491-493; Scott's Deccan, I. 160-161.
[6] Stokes' Belgaum, 21.

left their homes that in the third year when rain fell scarcely any remained to till the land.[1]

The capture of Belgaum and the conquest of its dependencies brought the whole of the Bombay Karnátak under Musalmán rule and for a time crushed the power of the Vijayanagar king. In 1478 the Bahmani minister Khwája Gawán, a Persian of great learning and power, finding so large a territory unwieldy, divided the Bahmani kingdom into eight *tarafs* or provinces. Each province had its own governor appointed by the king, and each governor had several officers under him also appointed by the king for the management of the different parts of the province. The practice of leaving all the forts in each province in the hands of each provincial governor was stopped. One fortress only was allowed to the governor. The others were kept in the hands of officers and troops appointed by the king and paid from head-quarters. Under this new distribution the country from Junnar, including several dependent districts in the south, Indápur in Poona, Wái and Mán in Sátára, and the forts of Goa and Belgaum, were placed under the governorship of Fakr-ul-Mulk.[2] In 1481 some Bahmani officers, whose power suffered under the new system of control, plotted against Khwája Gawán. He was falsely accused of treason and was put to death by the king's order. Muhammad's power never recovered the loss of Khwája Gawán who alone was able to control the rivalries and disaffection of the ambitious nobles of the Bahmani court.[3] About the same time (1479), under Narsingh, who according to one account was the slave of the last king Virupáksha, according to a second account was a chief of Telingana, and according to a third account was of a Tulav or South Kánara family, a fresh dynasty arose at Vijayanagar whose energy once more made the Hindu Karnátak a fit rival for the Musalmán Deccan. In 1481 the new Vijayanagar king Narsingh attempted to recover Goa. The attack was repelled by Muhammad Sháh who is mentioned as visiting Belgaum and examining the city and fortifications.[4] The ambition of the provincial governors, which Khwája Gawán had succeeded in curbing, after his death did not long remain at rest. In 1489 Ahmad Nizám Khán the governor of the Junnar province and Yusuf Adil Khán the governor of Bijápur, though they continued to pay nominal allegiance to Máhmud Bahmani (1482-1518) assumed independent power. Of these nobles, Yusuf Adil Khán, who,

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[1] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 494.

[2] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 502-503; Scott's Deccan, I. 168-169; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 29.

[3] According to Ferishta Khwája Gawán, who was connected with the family of the Sháh of Persia, alarmed by the intrigues and jealousies of the court of Persia, left his native land, travelled as a merchant through many countries, and formed the acquaintance of the learned men of each. Partly for trade and partly to visit the learned men of the Deccan, Khwája Gawán landed in 1455 at Dábhol in Ratnágiri, and travelled to Bidar. Allá-ud-Din Bahmani (1435-1457) was charmed by his learning and information and raised him to the rank of a noble. Under Allá-ud-Din's successors he received title after title until he became the first man in the state. He fought several successful campaigns, his greatest exploit being the capture of Goa in 1470. He was a strict Sunni, very learned and liberal, an accomplished writer, and a profound scholar. He left a library of three thousand volumes. Briggs' Ferishta, II. 510-512; Scott's Deccan, I. 172-175.

[4] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 516-517.

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Bijápur Kings, 1489-1686.

as the founder of the Bijápur dynasty (1489-1686) is one of the most important characters in Belgaum history, was a foreign soldier of fortune, surnamed Savaia from the Persian city of Sáva,[1] and is believed to have been a son of Agha Murád or Amurath Sultán of Turkey.[2] About the time when Ahmad Nizám Khán and Yusuf Adil Khán quietly assumed independence another noble of the Bahmani court Bahádur Giláni, the governor of the Konkan, broke into open rebellion. He seized Belgaum and Goa, established his head-quarters at Sankeshvar about thirty miles north of Belgaum, and afterwards (1489) possessed himself of Miraj and Jamkhandi. An attempt to establish a navy on the Konkan coast stirred the dangerous enmity of Máhmud Begada (1459-1511) the greatest of the Gujarát Ahmadabad Sultáns, who at this time held the Konkan coast as far south as Cheul. Under Begada's remonstrances and threats Máhmud Sháh was forced to take active measures against the rebel Giláni. In 1493, with the help of 5000 horse sent by Yusuf Adil Khán of Bijápur, who probably looked with disfavour on Giláni's attempt to secure the whole Konkan sea-board, Máhmud Sháh took Jamkhandi and gave it in charge to Yusuf Adil Khán's troops. From Jamkhandi Máhmud passed to Sankeshvar whose fortifications were still unfinished and which in three days yielded to the king. From Sankeshvar Máhmud marched against Miraj, twenty-eight miles west of Athni, defeated Giláni's troops, and took the town. Giláni, after one or two more reverses beyond Belgaum limits, was (1493) slain by an arrow, and his estate including Belgaum was conferred on Ein-ul-Mulk Giláni.[3] In 1498, though they continued to acknowledge their nominal supremacy till 1526, that is a century after (1426) the Bahmanis had moved their capital from Kulburga to Bidar, the three strongest of the Bahmani nobles, Yusuf Adil Khán of Bijápur, Ahmad Nizám Khán of Junnar afterward of Ahmadnagar, and Kutb Khán of Golkonda agreed to divide the Deccan. In this division Ein-ul-Mulk Giláni's estate of Belgaum and the neighbouring districts was assigned to Bijápur. Ein-ul-Mulk Giláni did not resist the transfer of his allegiance from Bidar to Bijápur and in token of his approval went with 6000 horse to the capital of his new overlord. About this time Hukeri twenty-five miles north of Belgaum and its neighbourhood was in charge of Fateh Bahádur a captain of one thousand horse.[4] In 1502 Yusuf Adil Shah, jealous of the growing power of Ein-ul-Mulk Giláni, took from him his command in the Bijápur army, and reduced his

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[1] Yusuf's title Savàia is the origin of the Portuguese Sabaio, a name by which the Bijápur kings are always known in early Portuguese books.

[2] The received story of Yusuf's life is that he was born about 1443. After his father's death in 1451 to save him from his elder brother who had succeeded to the throne, Yusuf was secretly delivered to Khwája Imád-ud-din, a merchant of Sáva in Persia who took and educated him till he was seventeen. In 1459, led by a dream, he sailed for India, and, in 1461, reached Dábhol in Ratnágiri. Here he was sold or got himself sold to Khwája Máhmud Gawán the Bahmani minister. His engaging manners rapidly raised him from a simple soldier to the command of the royal body-guard. Invested with the title of Adil Khán and adopted by Khwája Gawán he was made governor of Daulatabad and afterwards of Bijápur, where in 1489 he was crowned king. Gibbon's Decline of the Roman Empire, XII. 186; Briggs' Ferishta, III. 4-9.

[3] Briggs' Ferishta, II. 539-543.

[4] Stokes' Belgaum, 23.

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Bijápur Kings, 1489-1686.

possessions to the districts of Hukeri and Belgaum. Ein-ul-Mulk continued to hold Hukeri during the forty-three years ending 1546, where several tombs and water-courses remain as a trace of his government.[1]

*The Portuguese, 1510.*

During the first half of the sixteenth century the power of Bijápur was prevented passing south by the alliance between Vijayanagar and the Portuguese. From 1498, when, under Vasco da Gama they reached the Malabár coast, till, towards the close of 1510 they finally ousted Bijápur from Goa, the Portuguese fought not against the Hindus but against the Muhammadans. From the first the Portuguese did their best to gain Vijayanagar as an ally. But Narsingh and after his death in 1508 his successor Krishna Ráy themselves had designs on Goa, and gave the Portuguese little support till, in 1510, the Portuguese proved themselves strong enough unaided to defeat Bijápur.[2] The final success of the Portuguese at Goa was quickly followed by a close alliance between Krishna Ráy and the Portuguese. The power of Vijayanagar was greatly increased by the ammunition and guns, the horses, and the trained artillerymen supplied by the Portugese, and during Krishna Ráy's long reign (1508-1542) Vijayanagar was perhaps the richest state that ever held sway in Southern India.[3] At the same time, apparently shortly before the final conquest of Goa by the Portuguese, Bijápur was weakened by the death of its great ruler Yusuf Adil Sháh.[4] In March 1510, when the news of Dalboquerque's capture of Goa reached Belgaum, the Hindus rose, drove out the Bijápur garrison and resumed their former allegiance to the Vijayanagar kings.[5] Though the Belgaum Hindus were soon reduced and though Belgaum and Hukeri long belonged to Bijápur, Krishna Ráy of Vijayanagar seems to have spread his power as far north as Ráybág. A Kánarese inscription dated 1514-15 (*S.* 1436), at Ugargol three miles south-east of Saundatti, mentions the name of Bommappa of Bági that is Ráybág, as one of Krishna Ráy's military officers or *náiks*.[6] In 1511 Belgaum was taken from Ein-ul-Mulk, and, together with the title of Asad Khán, was granted to Khusru Turk, a Persian of the province of Lár and a Shia by religion, in reward for delivering the young king Ismáil Adil Sháh (1511-1535) from the treachery of his guardian Kamál Khán Dakhani.[7] Asad Khán held Belgaum for thirty-eight years (1511-1549) during which he was the mainstay of Bijápur power. His is the greatest name the local history can boast. He is the hero of the Belgaum

*Asad Khán, 1511-1549.*

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[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 23.

[2] Goa was taken by Dalboquerque on the 5th of March 1510. It was recovered by the Bijápur troops on the 23rd of May 1510 and was again taken and finally held by Dalboquerque on the 25th of November. Compare Briggs' Ferishta, III. 30; Commentaries of Dalboquerque, II. 89, 91, 125. Decadas De Barros, II. liv. v. 511, Faria in Kerr's Voyages, VI. 131, 133, 146. Details are given in the Statistical Account of North Kánara, Bombay Gazetteer, XV. Part I. 101-110.

[3] Rice's Mysore, I. 230.

[4] According to the Portuguese historians Yusuf died before the first capture of Goa by Dalboquerque. According to Ferishta (Briggs, III. 30) Yusuf died after the recapture of Goa by the Bijápur troops in May 1510.

[5] Commentaries of Dalboquerque, III. 37.

[6] Jour. Bom. Br. Roy. Asiatic Soc. XII. 343.

[7] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 45.

Chapter VII.
History.
Bijápur Kings, 1489-1686.
*Asad Khán, 1511-1549.*

Musalmáns, and is now a saint whose power keeps the cholera spirit from ruining his beloved town of Belgaum. In 1519, in a war with the brother kings of Vijayanagar, Krishna Ráya and Achyuta Ráya (1508-1542), Asad Khán saved the Bijápur army from the danger into which the rashness of Ismáil Adil Sháh had brought them and led the troops back in safety to the capital. For this service he was rewarded with the title of Sipáh Sálár or Commander-in-Chief. Several districts were added to his estate and from that time Asad Khán became the king's chief adviser.[1] In 1523 he was Bijápur envoy at Sholápur when the king's sister Mariam was married to Burhán Nizám Sháh of Ahmadnagar (1508-1553).[2] In 1524 near Sholápur Asad Khán gained a brilliant victory over the confederate kings of Ahmadnagar and Berar and the regent of Bidar, the bone of contention being the fort of Sholápur with its five and a half districts which were said to have been ceded by Bijápur to Ahmadnagar as the marriage portion of the Bijápur princess. In this battle Asad Khán took Burhán Sháh's standard, forty elephants, cannon, and baggage. He was presented with eleven of the elephants and the pay of every soldier in his army was raised. To enable him to bear this expense Ismáil gave to Asad Khán's troops the land allotted for the support of the harem and half the customs levied at the forts.[3] In 1528 Asad Khán once more completely defeated the Ahmadnagar king, and took much of his baggage, and twenty elephants. Except one elephant called *Alla Baksha* or The Gift of God, which Ismáil kept for himself, these animals were presented to Asad Khán whom in his letters or *firmáns* Ismail addressed as *Farzan* or son.[4] In 1529 Asad Khán accompanied his master Ismáil against Amir Barid the regent of Bidar, an old, experienced, and crafty prince. The Bijápur troops won the day chiefly through the skill of Asad Khán, whom, when the battle was over, the king embraced in the sight of the whole army. Asad Khán followed this success by surprising the Bidar regent in a fit of debauchery and carrying him prisoner to the Bijápur camp. In 1531 Asad Khán gained a fourth victory over Ahmadnagar and established the superiority of Bijápur throughout the Deccan.[5] In 1534, on his death-bed, Ismáil Adil Khán appointed Asad Khán Protector of the Kingdom and guardian of his eldest son Mallu Adil Sháh. Disorders which threatened to break out on the king's death were firmly suppressed by Asad Khán. Afterwards, disgusted with the conduct of the young king, Asad Khán resigned his post at court and retired to Belgaum. He was accompanied by Yusuf Khán, a Turkish nobleman who had an estate at Kittur about twenty-five miles south-east of Belgaum.[6] The conduct of Mallu Adil Sháh not only disgusted his guardian, it alienated his friends, even his grandmother took part against him. After a reign of six months he was deposed and blinded by Yusuf Khán of Kittur and his brother Ibráhim was placed on the throne. Ibráhim Adil Sháh (1535-1557) abjured

[1] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 51.
[2] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 51.
[3] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 52-55.
[4] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 56.
[5] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 57-62.
[6] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 76.

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*Asad Khán, 1511-1549.*

the Shia tenets of his father and grandfather and ordered Asad Khán to enlist Deccanis in his service and to adopt the Sunni faith. Asad Khán dismissed six hundred foreigners out of a thousand, but refused to change his faith, and, both in his camp and on his estate, publicly practised the Shia rites, an indulgence which the king prudently allowed.[1] Under the new king Ibráhim II. Asad Khán resumed his post of Commander-in-Chief. Through his advice an army marched to Vijayanagar, and, on their return Asad Khán went to attack Adoni or Adváni, concluded a peace, and returned.[2] Asad Khán's enemies tried to persuade Ibráhim that the peace was against Bijápur interests and was due to corruption. Ibráhim refused to believe this charge, and, on Asad Khán's return, presented him with robes and made him Prime Minister as well as Commander-in-Chief. This still more enraged Asad Khán's enemies. Yusuf Khán of Kittur accused him of meditating the surrender of the Belgaum fort to Burhán Nizám of Ahmadnagar, who, like Asad Khán, was a Shia. This time his enemies succeeded. Under Yusuf's advice the king summoned Asad Khán to Bijápur, but Asad Khán pleaded sickness and remained at Belgaum. After fruitless attempts to poison him, lands near Belgaum were given to Yusuf that, when the chance offered, he might seize the minister. Once near Belgaum, while Asad was riding alone some distance ahead of his guard, Yusuf Khán attacked him with a troop of horse. Asad Khán, who was a man of giant strength and a famous swordsman, attacked and put Yusuf Khán to flight, and with the help of his guard made Yusuf's men prisoners.[3] King Ibráhim professed much anger at Yusuf's conduct, confined him, and asked Asad Khán to do with him what he pleased. Asad Khán blamed his own ill-luck and set Yusuf's men free with presents.[4] Taking advantage of this quarrel between Ibráhim and Asad Khán, Burhán Nizám of Ahmadnagar and Amir Barid of Bidar spread abroad reports that Asad Khán had promised to give them Belgaum. In 1542 the Ahmadnagar king attacked the Bijápur territory and moved south towards Belgaum. According to Ferishta Asad Khán was not in treaty with Bijápur's enemies. Still, to save his estates from plunder, he joined Burhán Nizám with six thousand horse and his example was followed by Ein-ul-Mulk of Hukeri. Ibráhim Adil Sháh retired to Kulbarga leaving the country as far as Bijápur at the mercy of the invaders. Asad Khán explained to Imad Sháh, the king of Berar, that he was not really in alliance with Ahmadnagar and asked him to help his master Ibráhim. Imad Sháh agreed and the siege of Bijápur was raised. Asad Khán left his nominal allies and went over to Imad Sháh through whom he was restored to his master's confidence. In proof of his favour towards Asad Khán Ibráhim Sháh imprisoned Yusuf's agents, and conferred Yusuf's estates among them Kittur on Ein-ul-Mulk the governor of Hukeri, who, under the persuasion of Asad Khán, had rejoined the Bijápur service.[5] The enemy was driven from Bijápur and peace was

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[1] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 80. [2] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 87.
[3] Lead-weighted shoes, too heavy for a man to lift, in which Asad Khán used to exercise himself are still treasured in the Sáfa mosque at Belgaum. Stokes' Belgaum, 34. [4] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 89. [5] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 90-92.

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Bijápur Kings, 1489-1686.

*Asad Khán, 1511-1549.*

concluded. In 1543 Bijápur attacked on three sides, by Burhán Nizám of Ahmadnagar, by Jamshid Kutab Sháh of Golkonda, and by Rám Ráya of Vijayanagar, was on the brink of ruin. Following Asad Khán's advice Ibráhim Sháh bought off Burhán Nizám and Rám Ráya and turned his whole strength against Golkonda. After taking some forts Asad Khán followed Kutab Sháh close to Golkonda, completely defeated him, and in a combat inflicted a wound which disfigured Kutab Sháh for life. Asad Khán returned victorious to Bijápur and was honoured by the king.[1] After this, probably in 1544-45, Burhán Nizám again attacked Bijápur. He was once more met by Asad Khán and a fifth time routed with heavy loss. In reward for this fresh success Ibráhim added several districts to Asad Khán's estate.[2] Soon after this Ibráhim Adil Sháh on slight suspicion put many of his nobles to death and made himself so hateful to others that a plot was formed to dethrone him and raise his brother Abdulla to the throne. The plot was discovered and Abdulla fled for safety to Goa. Ibráhim believed that Asad Khán was a party to this plot and he was forced to retire to Belgaum. With the aid of the Portuguese Nizám Sháh and Kutab Sháh, Abdulla proclaimed himself king and marched to Bijápur. Asad Khán was asked to join in the revolt but angrily declined. The sudden illness of Asad Khán destroyed the insurgents' chance of success. As Burhán Nizám was passing Belgaum on his way to Bijápur he heard that Asad was dangerously ill. Contrary to agreement Burhán stopped in the hope that on Asad's death he might be able to seize the fort of Belgaum. To prepare the way he sent a Bráhman spy to buy over Asad's men. Asad recovered, and, hearing what was going on, seized Burhán Nizám's spy and killed him, and put to death as many of the garrison as seemed to have been tampered with. This open breach with Burhán encouraged Ibráhim's supporters; the insurrection was quelled, and Abdulla was forced to retire to Goa where he remained till his death in 1554. In 1549 Asad Khán sent word to Ibráhim that he was dying and wished to see him before he died. Ibráhim started for Belgaum, but, before he arrived, Asad Khán had died at Mandoli three miles south-west of Belgaum. His tomb or *darga* in the Belgaum camp is still worshipped both by Musalmáns and Hindus. Asad's son Muhammad Kishwar Khán was made governor of Hukeri, Belgaum, and Ráybág, and the rest of Asad's estates and treasures went to the king.[3] According to Ferishta,[4] besides for his prowess as a soldier and his skill as a statesman, Asad Khán was famous as the patron and protector of all the learned and distinguished men in the Deccan. He lived at Belgaum in the greatest magnificence. He had 250 household servants, Georgians, Circassians, Hindus, and Abyssinians. He had sixty large and 150 small elephants, and, in his stables

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[1] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 94. [2] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 95.

[3] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 100-101, 115. According to Portuguese historians a tenth of Asad Khán's riches valued at ten million ducats or £2,250,000 were used to bribe their government to give up Abdulla's cause. Briggs' Ferishta, III. 517.

[4] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 101-102.

besides those of mixed breed were 450 Arab horses. In his kitchens 100 fowls, thirty sheep, and 2700 pounds (100 Deccan *mans*) of rice were daily cooked. He set the fashion, which all men of rank followed, of wearing a gold waistband and a dagger. He attempted to manage elephants with a bit and bridle but the bit failed to control them in their fits of fury. Both Hindus and Musalmáns still worship him as the guardian of Belgaum. In the fine Sáfa mosque are still kept his sabre-proof quilted jacket, his Kuran, and his leaden-soled shoes, heavier than a man can lift, wearing which he used to leap on the platform at the south wall of the mosque.

*Asad Khán, 1511-1549.*

After Asad Khán's death (1549) one Seif-ud-din Ein-ul-Mulk rose in Ibráhim's favour and was made commander-in-chief. In 1550 one Sher Khán built the town of Sháhápur, originally called Sháhpet as the *petta* or market of the fort of Belgaum.[1] In 1551 war again broke out between Ahmadnagar and Bijápur, and a brilliant victory was lost by the king's distrust of his commander Ein-ul-Mulk. Disgusted with the king Ein-ul-mulk retired to his estates and possessed himself of the country watered by the Mán in Sátára, and of Válva, Miraj, and other districts possibly parts of north Belgaum. Two fruitless attempts were made to dislodge Ein-ul-Mulk from his new possessions. In 1557 Ibráhim Adil Sháh died leaving sons, two of whom because of their leaning towards the Shia faith, were under watch, the eldest Ali at Miraj and the younger Tahamásp at Belgaum. When the king was on his death-bed Muhammad Kishwar Khán, Asad Khán's son, who possessed great wealth and influence, sided with the elder son Ali, and after Ibráhim's death released him from Miraj and placed him on the throne as Ali Adil Sháh (1557-1579). In 1558 Muhammad Kishvar Khán, who was made commander-in-chief, was sent as ambassador to Rám Ráya the regent of Vijayanagar (1542-1565) to enter into a league with him against Ahmadnagar. The embassy was successful and Rám Ráya was of great assistance to Bijápur. Though useful Rám Ráya proved a dangerous ally. He grew arrogant and wrested several districts from Bijápur probably parts of east Belgaum.[2] Enraged with his insolence Kishwar Khán negotiated a league against Rám Ráya to which the four Musalmán kings of Bijápur, Ahmadnagar, Golkonda, and Bidar became parties. In 1565 this league ended in the complete defeat of Rám Ráya at the battle (25th January) fought on the banks of the Krishna eighteen miles south of Tálikoti in the Muddebihál sub-division of Bijápur. Though the overthrow of Vijayanagar was complete, the jealousy of Bijápur and Ahmadnagar prevented either power from annexing any part of the conquered country. As much of it as had formerly belonged to Bijápur and had been lately usurped by Rám Ráya was recovered by Vitta Gauda Pátil of Avrádi on the Bhima. This Vitta Gauda is the ancestor of the Navalgund chief, now the *desái* of Sirsangi, about twelve miles north-east of Saundatti. Under Ibráhim Adil Sháh he commanded a body of horse and foot, and, in reward for his services, obtained the chief hereditary office of the

*Overthrow of Vijayanagar, 1565.*

[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 45.
[2] Silcock's Bijápur, 27. An undated inscription of Sadáshiv Ráy the nominal ruler of Vijayanagar (1542-1573) has been found at Murgod about twenty-five miles east of Belgaum. Dr. Burgess' Archæological Lists, 46.

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*Their Conquests.*

division of Kokkatanur now in Athni. He distinguished himself at the battle of Tálikoti, where he supplied and commanded 1000 horse and 2000 foot. After the battle he took the fort of Torgal in East Belgaum, the sub-divisions of Terdal and Yádvád, the Parasgad villages of Sattigeri, Saundatti, Govankop, Yakkundi, Murgod, Asundi, and Huli, and the Bádámi village of Mutkavi. In 1566 Ali Adil Sháh rewarded Vitta Gauda by creating him Sar Desái of Torgal and conferred on him many rights and honours.[1]

In 1568 the natural dislike and suspicion of Ahmadnagar and Bijápur once more brought on a war. Kishwar Kháh was presented with his father's standard the Angry Lion, and was sent to ravage Ahmadnagar, a service which cost him his life. In 1570 Ahmadnagar and Bijápur again joined to form a league. With the assistance of the Musalmáns of Kalikat they determined to attack all the Portuguese possessions and ruin their power. The heroic defence of Cheul against the Ahmadnagar army and of Goa against Bijápur ended in the total defeat of the allies.[2] Still the alliance had important effects. The feeling between Ahmadnagar and Bijápur grew more friendly, and in 1573 they agreed that Bijápur would not stand in the way of Ahmadnagar's conquest to the north and north-east and that Ahmadnagar would in no way hinder the spread of Bijápur power to the south. Ali Adil Sháh accordingly turned his attention to the country still held by Vijayanagar. In 1573, before reducing Dhárwár and the surrounding territory, Ali Adil Sháh marched on Turkul, that is Torgal. This in 1566 the king had himself granted to Vitta Gauda, or, as Ferishta calls him Venkatti Yesov Ráy, but Vitta had since refused to acknowledge Bijápur as his overlord. After a siege of seven months Vitta Gauda or Venkatti gave himself up and was put to death with torture.[3] Vitta's estates seem to have remained in his family. By the capture of Dhárwár and Bankápur in the same year, Belgaum and Kittur ceased to be frontier districts. The change reduced their military importance, but probably increased their safety and wealth.[4] In 1583 the English traveller Fitch found Belgaum, the first town between Goa and Bijápur, a good market for diamonds, rubies, sapphires and other precious stones.[5] From this time, for more than a century, the whole of the Bombay Karnátak remained under Bijápur.

In 1580 Ali Adil Sháh was assassinated and was succeeded by his nephew Ibráhim Adil Sháh (1580-1626) a minor. In 1582, taking advantage of the confusion which prevailed at Bijápur, the kings of Ahmadnagar, Golkonda, and Bidar besieged Bijápur, but the energy of Dilávar Khán, a Bijápur nobleman, forced the invaders to raise the siege. The Nizám Sháhi army returned to Ahmadnagar, on the way plundering Hukeri, Ráybág, and Miraj.[6] In 1593 prince Ismáil the brother of king Ibráhim II., who, since 1580, had been

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[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 36.
[2] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 521, 523; Faria y Souza in Kerr's Voyages, VI. 423; Da Cunha's Cheul, 49, 54.
[3] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 135.
[4] Stokes' Belgaum, 37.
[5] Fitch in Harris' Voyages, I. 207.
[6] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 154, 443.

*Disorder, 1593.*

kept a state prisoner at Belgaum, won the governor and garrison of Belgaum to his side, possessed himself of the fort, and broke into open revolt. Burhán Nizám of Ahmadnagar promised him help, and most of the Bijápur nobles openly or secretly sympathised with him. Ibráhim sent an army under Eliás Khán to quell the rebellion and besiege Belgaum where the prince still remained. During the siege Ein-ul-Mulk, a commander in Ibráhim's army, outwardly aiding the siege, secretly strengthened Ismáil's garrison by sending them grain and other necessaries and at last openly declared in Ismáil's favour. The siege was broken and Eliás Khán retired to Bijápur. Ein-ul-Mulk with an army of thirty thousand men marched to Belgaum and persuaded prince Ismáil to quit the fort and move towards Bijápur. Before they started a second army under a fresh general Hamed Khán came from Bijápur. Hamed Khán professed great respect for Ismáil and attachment to his cause. Tempted by the prospect of Hamed Khán's support Ein-ul-Mulk and prince Ismáil left Belgaum. When too far from the fort to seek safety in flight, Hamed Khán fell on them, slew Ein-ul-Mulk, and captured prince Ismáil who was shortly after put to death.[1] Of Bijápur rule in Belgaum during the rest of the sixteenth and the early part of the seventeenth century little information has been traced. From 1569 till 1615 Hukeri was held by a Bijápur officer, named Ranadulla Khán, who in 1616 was succeeded by his son Rustam Zamán. Afterwards Rustam Zamán was promoted to Miraj and Kolhápur, and Hukeri was given to one Abdul Kharid. 1629-30 was a rainless year, followed by famine and pestilence.[2]

*War with the Moghals, 1631.*

The spread of Moghal power southwards over Gujarát in 1584 and Khándesh in 1590, received a check after the fall of Ahmadnagar in 1600. The military and civil talents of Malik Ambar recovered most of the Ahmadnagar territories for his master Murtaza Nizám Sháh II. (1605-1631) and maintained his power till Malik Ambar's death in 1626. In 1631 the Moghal general Ásaf Khán laid siege to Bijápur. His provisions were cut off and he was forced to withdraw revenging himself by cruelly wasting the Bijápur country as far west as Miraj and Ráybág.[3] In 1635, after the submission of Daulatabad, the Emperor Sháh Jahán's (1626-1657) title to the Ahmadnagar country was disputed by the first of modern Maráthás, Sháhji, the father of the great Shiváji, who was supported by Bijápur. Sháh Jahán sent his general Khán Zamán against Sháhji who was driven from the north towards Miraj and Kolhápur. Khán Zamán, weary of fruitless pursuit, employed his forces in laying waste the country about Kolhápur, Miraj, and Ráybág. He took and destroyed the towns, carried off the people, and pressed forward every means of ruin till Bijápur made peace and left him to pursue Sháhji. This war ended in the final overthrow of the Ahmadnagar kingdom (1636), the establishment of Moghal power as far south as the Bhima, and the transfer of the rest of Ahmadnagar to Bijápur on payment of a tribute to the Delhi Emperor.[4] In 1643 Abdul Kharid, the last Musalmán chief of Hukeri who had been ousted by the

[1] Briggs' Ferishta, III. 176-182.
[2] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 46.
[3] Elliot and Dowson, VII. 30.
[4] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 52.

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*Marátha Raids, 1648 - 1680.*

Marátha chief of Panhála died and an attempt to reinstate his son failed.[1] In 1648 Belgaum seems to have formed part of the service-estate or *jágir* of Muhammad bin Zabit Khán, originally an Abyssinian slave of the name of Rehán, then a leading officer in the Bijápur army.[2] In 1649 Linga Gauda the fourth descendant of Vitta Gauda of Torgal received some lands as a reward for distinguished service in the field. In 1656, seven years after Shiváji's revolt against Bijápur, Muhammad Sháh who succeeded Ibráhim Adil Sháh in 1626 died, leaving behind him Ali Adil Sháh II. (1656-1672) a youth of nineteen. In 1657 Aurangzeb, then viceroy of the Deccan, began an unprovoked war with Bijápur and marched against the young king. The Bijápur army was led by Muhammad Khán of Belgaum now general and prime minister. Owing to the treachery of Muhammad Khán, who was bought by Aurangzeb, the Moghal army arrived unopposed before Bijápur. The city was saved by the alarming illness of Sháh Jahán which took Aurangzeb suddenly to Delhi. A hasty peace was concluded and the Moghal army retired from Bijápur.[3] Muhammad Khán the traitor was asked to court under promise of protection. As he entered the city, he was dragged from his elephant and murdered,[4] and his estate bestowed on his son Khawás Khán.[5] The peace with the Moghals enabled Ali Adil Sháh to turn his arms against his rebel subject Shiváji the founder of the Marátha empire. In 1659 under Afzul Khán an army was sent against Shiváji. Afzul Khán made his way west as far as Mahábaleshvar, and there near Pratápgad was deceived and slain by Shiváji and his army destroyed. Shiváji followed up this success by seizing the fort of Panhála about ten miles north-west of Kolhápur, and with it the Kolhápur district including the Sankeshvar sub-division of Belgaum.[6] The Bijápur officer Rustam Zamán who held Miraj and Kolhápur, according to letters from English merchants at Rájápur and Kárwár, was believed to have been bribed by Shiváji and to have shared in the plunder of towns in his own estate or *jágir*.[7] When too late to save Kolhápur Rustam Zamán was ordered to march against Shiváji. With 3000 horse and a small body of infantry he advanced to Panhála, was defeated with great loss, and was driven across the Krishna followed by Shiváji who plundered the country as far as Bijápur, levied contributions, spread terror, and baffled pursuit.[8] In 1661 the Bijápur king took the field against Shiváji and regained Panhála. In spite of this loss Shiváji's power spread so rapidly that in 1662 Bijápur agreed to cede him the Konkan from Kalyán to Goa, and the Deccan from the north of Poona to the south of Miraj.[9] In 1666, in spite of this favourable settlement, Shiváji joined the Moghals in attacking Bijápur. In 1668 Ali Adil Sháh was so humbled that he concluded a peace with the Moghals and made an agreement with Shiváji under which the

[1] Moor's Narrative of Captain Little's Detachment, 14. [2] Stokes' Belgaum, 40.
[3] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 70-71; Elphinstone's History, 516.
[4] Silcock's Bijápur, 39; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 75.
[5] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 75. [6] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 79; Stokes' Belgaum, 41
[7] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 80; Stokes' Belgaum, 41.
[8] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 80. [9] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 85.

Bijápur king engaged to pay £30,000 (Rs. 3,00,000) to prevent Shiváji levying the one-fourth or *chauth* of the Bijápur revenues.[1] From 1668 to 1686 Hukeri is said to have been held by Induráv Ghorpure.[2] In 1672 Ali Adil Sháh died leaving a son, Sultán Sikandar (1672-1686) a child of five years. Khawás Khán who in 1661, as second in command, had accompanied Ali Adil Sháh in his expedition in the Karnátak was made regent. Before his death Ali Adil Sháh suggested that the leading nobles should be put in charge of the different provinces of the kingdom, the Bombay Karnátak being assigned to Abdul Karim Khán the founder of the family of the Sávanur Nawábs. The regent set aside these arrangements fearing that the nobles when in charge of their provinces would treat his authority with little respect. Khawás Khán's decision caused much ill-feeling at Bijápur.[3] In 1673, taking advantage of the dissensions at Bijápur, Shiváji retook Panhála, and on his way to the sack of Hubli in Dhárwár plundered Belgaum.[4] From this time Shiváji seems to have been master of great part of Belgaum. In face of this fatal advance of Marátha power the Bijápur nobles set aside their private disputes. In 1673 Abdul Karim Khán was sent against the Maráthás and regained possession of the open country round Panhála. While he was busy in the west, a Marátha force appeared plundering near Bijápur. Abdul Karim was recalled to defend the capital, and, between Bijápur and Miraj, was attacked and forced to come to terms. In 1674 Abdul Karim Khán again marched to retake Panhála but was again defeated. In 1674, at his capital on Ráigad hill in Kolába, Shiváji assumed the titles and ensigns of royalty, and, in the same year, to strengthen his hold on the Belgaum country he is said to have built 360 strong places. Among these were the forts of Parasgad, Kathárigad, and Huli in the Parasgad sub-division. These and many other forts, each with a temple to Shiváji's patron goddess Bhaváni, were finished within eighteen months. To realize his claims on the surrounding country these forts were garrisoned, and, under grants from Bijápur, a fort cess or *gad-patti* was levied on the neighbouring villages.[5] In 1675 the regent Khawás Khán was assassinated because he had agreed to hold Bijápur as a province of the Moghal empire. The chief authority fell into the hands of Abdul Karim Khán, who defeated the Moghals in several actions and forced them to enter into terms honourable to Bijápur.[6] In 1679 on the death of the regent Abdul Karim Khán, the Moghals again laid siege to Bijápur. Abdul Karim Khán's successor applied for aid to Shiváji, though in the year before Shiváji had taken several of the Bijápur-Karnátak districts. Shiváji made a vigorous attack on the Moghal possessions in the Deccan. At this juncture his eldest son Sambháji, who was a prisoner at Panhála, revolted against his father and joined the Moghal army at Bijápur. Shiváji marched towards Bijápur, hovered around the besieging army, and by cutting off its supplies, forced Diláwar Khán the Moghal general to raise the siege. At the end of the rains Diláwar Khán attacked the open country and

[1] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 99. [2] Stokes' Belgaum, 42. [3] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 118. [4] Stokes' Belgaum, 42. [5] Stokes' Belgaum, 42. [6] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 120.

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*Máratha Power, 1680.*

plundered Athni which then belonged to Shiváji. Athni or Hattani was an important centre of commerce which a few years before had large dealings with the English factory at Kárwár on the Kánara coast.[1] After the plunder of the town Diláwar Khán proposed to sell the Hindu inhabitants of Athni as slaves while Sambháji was anxious to keep them as subjects. Diláwar persisted in selling the people and Sambháji in disgust was reconciled to his father.[2] At the time of his death in 1680 Shiváji held the Belgaum country south to the Harankáshi a feeder of the Ghatprabha,[3] together with the forts of Párgad and Kálánandigad in Belgaum, Bhimgad in Khánápur, Vallabhgad, Mahipálgad, Pavitragad in Chikodi, and Murgod, Parasgad, Kathárigad, and Huli in Parasgad. Shiváji was succeeded by his son Sambháji. In 1681 Muhammad Akbar, the fourth son of the emperor Aurangzeb, rebelled against his father and sought Sambháji's protection. The village of Dodsay about twenty miles north of Belgaum was fixed for his residence, and, in compliment to his guest, Sambháji changed its name to Pádsháp̄ur or Páchhápur.[4] In 1683 the party in power at Bijápur attempted to recover the rich districts on the Krishna which had fallen into Shiváji's possession, and Miraj was retaken. This ill-judged aggression led to a final breach between the Maráthás and Bijápur, and prepared the way for the Moghal overthrow of the Adil Sháhi kingdom. In 1683 Aurangzeb left Delhi with a vast army intent on subduing the Deccan.[5] In 1684 he ordered his son Sultán Muázzim to march and retake the south-western districts which Shiváji had won from Bijápur.[6] Muázzim marched southwards and captured Gokák in 1685.[7] In 1686 Aurangzeb crippled Golkonda and turned his whole strength on Bijápur.

*Fall of Bijapur, 1686.*

After a gallant defence the city fell on the 15th of October 1686, and with the fall of Bijápur the Adil Sháhi dynasty came to an end. After the fall of Bijápur the Moghals drove the Máráthás out of Belgaum, except Hukeri now the Chikodi subdivision. The rest of the district practically formed part of the Moghal empire. A Bijápur noble Abdul Ráuf Khán, son of the late Abdul Karim Khán entered the Moghal service, and, with the title of Diláwar Khán Bahádur Diláwar Jang, was appointed *mansabdár* or governor of Bijápur country. Abdul Ráuf Khán was granted in *jágir* or estate, the twenty-two petty divisions or *máháls* subordinate to Bankápur, Ázamnagar[8] or Mustafabad[9] that is Belgaum, and Torgal

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[1] Orme's Historical Fragments, 86, 258; Ogilby's Atlas, V. 247; Hamilton's Description of Hindustán, II. 233; Moor's Narrative, 307.
[2] Orme's Historical Fragments, 86, 87.
[3] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 133.
[4] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 136.
[5] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 142.
[6] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 149.
[7] Orme's Historical Fragments, 144.
[8] According to Mr. Stokes (Belgaum, 45), after the fall of Bijápur, the fort of Belgaum remained for some years in possession of Aurangzeb's second son Ázam and from him was called Ázamnagar. This seems doubtful. According to Orme (Historical Fragments, 287) Belgaum was called Ázamnagar under the Bijápur kings. The province of Ázamnagar formed the western boundary of the district of Bankápur, and it contained within it the district of Gokák of which the town of Gokák was the head place.
[9] Belgaum was called Mustafabad in memory of its commandant or *kiládár* named Mustafa, who thoroughly repaired and strengthened the ramparts. Stokes' Belgaum, 45.

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History.
The Moghals, 1686-1723.

Abdul Ráuf Khán at first made Bankápur in Dhárwár his head-quarters. About the close of the seventeenth century he established himself at Sávanur and became the founder of the family of the present Nawábs of Sávanur. He was employed on various services and subdued the refractory landlords or *desáis* of the Bombay Karnátak. After they were reduced the *desáis* continued to administer the country paying a yearly tribute or *peshkash* to Abdul Ráuf Khán. Among these *desáis* the most important within Belgaum limits was Mudi Mallapa the Lingáyat *desái* of Kittur, who held Sampgaon and Bidi. The founders of this family were two brothers of the name of Hire or the elder Mulla, and Chik or the younger Mulla, who, towards the close of the sixteenth century, came into the district with the Bijápur army as moneylenders, and settled at Sampgaon. By distinguished services in the field the elder Mulla received the title of Shamsher Jang Bahádur and obtained a grant of the *sardeshmukhi* of the Hubli district. The fifth *desái* established himself at Kittur which was formerly sometimes called Gijaganahalli or Weaver-bird Town, and also became master of Sampgaon and Bidi. His son Mudi Mallapa was in power when Ráuf Khán made his settlement with the *desáis*. The other chief with whom Ráuf Khán made his settlement was the *desái* of Navalgund whose estates were continued to him. The parts of the district which for some years did not belong the Moghals was Hukeri in the west which was held by an independent *desái* the ancestor of the present Vontámurikar. During the disturbed times of Shiváji's plundering raids the Hukeri *desái* seems to have firmly established his power. He renounced all allegiance to Bijápur, assumed the independent title of *sansthánik* or estateholder, and by frequent encroachments gained a firm hold over his district. After the fall of Bijápur the Moghals allowed the Hukeri *desái* to remain undisturbed.[1] As the Moghals felt that there could be no security in Belgaum till the Maráthás were driven out of the neighbourhood, they continued to press them hard, till in 1690 Panhála was taken and placed under the charge of a Moghal officer.[2] In 1689 the power of the Maráthás was much reduced by the capture and execution of Sambháji, whose infant son Sháhu remained in Aurangzeb's power. In spite of the loss of their leader the managers of the Marátha state showed much energy and ability. Their forces swarmed all over the country, and their leaders exacted *chauth*, *sardeskmukhi*, and *ghásdána* from every district they entered.[3] In 1692 they retook Panhála and the fort of Torgal and defeated a Moghal officer stationed at Miraj.[4]

*Condition, 1695.*

Towards the close of the seventeenth century (1695) the Italian traveller Gemelli Careri passed through Goa, Kánara and Belgaum on his way to Galgalle about fifteen miles north of Kaládgi to see the Moghal camp. From Sámbráni in Kánara he arrived at Kakeri, a thinly peopled village about twenty-eight miles south-east of Belgaum. A march of twelve miles north brought him to Itgi, which, though made

[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 44.
[2] Grant Duff's Máráthás, 159, 163.
[3] Stokes' Belgaum, 45.
[4] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 166; Stokes' Belgaum 45.

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History.
The Moghals, 1686-1723.
*Condition, 1695.*

up of cottages, had excellent land for tillage and sport, the stags and other game feeding tamely. A march of ten miles through a rich country took him to Tigdi, a small town defended by an earthen fort. From Tigdi he went to Vanur, and thence through a country full of green and delightful trees to Mamdápur, a city of mud houses enclosed with a low wall but with a good hill fort of lime and stone. From Mamdápur he went four miles to Betgire a walled town. A six-mile journey took him to Kalligudi, where, at a dear rate, he tasted ripe grapes like those of Europe. He then went to Yádvád, twenty-five miles east of Gokák, the largest city he had seen since he left Goa, but then visited with a plague. It had two enclosures. Within the first enclosure was an ill-built stone fort and a market, and within the second enlosure a garrisoned fort with mud and straw houses about it. All traders from the south bound for the Moghal camp at Galgalle halted at Yádvád. After visiting the Moghal camp he left Galgalle, passed through a country infested with robbers and enemies to Christianity, and returned to Yádvád, where he was disappointed in not finding any caravans or Christians on their way to Goa. On the 28th of March 1695, he started from Yádvád and arrived at the village of Kalligudi. From Kalligudi he marched to Mamdápur, ten miles south-east of Gokák, where he spent the night and passed the whole of the 29th in travelling. He spent the night under bushes in a field, in much dread of robbers, and next day made his way to Belgaum. Though with little but mud and thatched houses, Belgaum was a populous city on account of its trade. It had a large market and a good Musalmán fort built of stone and girt by a deep ditch full of water. In proportion to the size of the fort and the garrison the number of cannon was small. Next day (31st March) a Moor led him to Sháhápur a mile south, where he found a caravan of oxen ready to start for Bardes or Goa. The Kánarins or Goanese belonging to the caravan showed Careri much kindness, satisfying his three days' hunger with fowls and rice, but no bread, as the people were not in the habit of eating bread. He set out riding with the caravan and passed the night in a wood near the village of Jámboti near Khánápur belonging to a Say, that is *desái*, or prince of the same name, as the Moghals allowed some lords to possess these barren countries for a yearly tribute. After a few hours' riding, on the first of April, he passed by some cottages where were the officers of the custom house and guards of the roads who were worse than thieves. The night was spent on a mountain near some little huts of country people who had not a chicken or anything else Caréri could eat. Travelling through such a country was difficult. There were no beasts of carriage; a man who had no horse of his own had to mount an ox. There were no provisions, rice, pulse, and meal being found only in great towns. There were no caravanserais or rest-houses on the road; at night a clear sky or else a tree was all a man's covering. There was no safety from daring thieves, and the country was disturbed by the raids of Marátha soldiers.[1]

[1] Churchill's Voyages, IV, 217-219; 249-250.

Chapter VII.
History.
Sátára, 1707-1730.

On Aurangzeb's death in 1707 prince Ázam, who aimed at the throne of Delhi, released Sháhu, the son of Sambháji, and on condition of stedfast allegiance promised him the territories which Aurangzeb had won from Bijápur. The release of Sháhu led to the establishment of two Marátha principalities under two of Shiváji's grandsons, Sátára under Sháhu and Kolhápur under Sambháji. In 1709 Sháhu's authority was much strengthened by an agreement with Daúd Khán the Moghal viceroy of the Deccan, under which he and such Marátha chiefs as acknowledged Moghal authority were allowed one-fourth of the revenue of the Deccan, the right of collecting and paying their share being reserved by the viceroy.[1] In 1713 this treaty came to an end, and the Marátha armies again spread themselves over the Moghal territories collecting their tribute. In 1719 through the influence of the Sayeds who deposed the emperor Ferokshir (1713-1719), Sháhu received three imperial grants for the *chauth* or one-fourth and the *sardeshmukhi* or one-tenth of the revenues of the six Deccan provinces, among them Bijápur which included Belgaum. The third grant was for the *svaráj* or home rule of sixteen districts and forts. The only one of the sixteen districts included in the Maráthi *svaráj* or home rule which affected Belgaum was Panhála. Among the Belgaum forts which passed to Sháhu was Bhimgad in Khánápur and Phonda the centre of the Phonda Panch Maháls one of which was Khánápur.[2] Fatehsing Bhonsle, Rája of Akalkot, was appointed to collect the *chauth* and *sardeshmukhi* dues of the country in which Belgaum was included. But, owing to the power of Kolhápur and of the Sávanur Nawáb, for some years the Sátára government failed to enforce their rights over Belgaum.[3] In 1720 Chin Kilich Khán, Nizám-ul-Mulk, the Governor of Málwa, helped the emperor Muhammad Sháh (1719-1748) to get rid of the Sayeds. In 1723 he retired to the Deccan as viceroy and assumed independence. From that time the country south of the Narbada ceased to form part of the Moghal empire.[4] It was probably about this time that as viceroy of the Deccan Nizám-ul-Mulk quelled a disturbance in the Bijápur-Karnátak in which Belgaum was included, and appointed a new *subhedár* to that district. He is also said to have taken Athni and the fort of Belgaum.[5] After a short time Athni passed from the Nizám to Kolhápur.

*The Nizam, 1723.*

In 1726 Peshwa Bájiráo (1720-1740), with a large army under Fatehsing Bhonsle, crossed the Krishna and marched as far south as Seringapatam, plundering the country through which they passed.[6] In 1730 after several repulses the Kolhápur chief yielded his claims to the chiefship of the Maráthás to Sháhu, and accepted Kolhápur as a distinct and independent state. Under the terms of a treaty then concluded, with a few exceptions the whole territory between the Krishna and the Varna on the north and the Tungbhadra on the

*Bájiráo Peshwa, 1726.*

[1] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 188.
[2] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 200; Stokes' Belgaum, 47.
[3] Stokes' Belgaum, 47, 48.
[4] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 211.
[5] Stokes' Belgaum, 48.
[6] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 218.

Chapter VII. History. Sátára, 1726-1730.

south was assigned to Kolhápur, and Miraj Athni and Tásgaon on the north of the Krishna to Sátára.[1] In reward for the help given to Kolhápur, Jayappa the *desái* of Navalgund, the most distinguished member of the family and a man reputed to be wise and able, received among others the Parasgad villages of Hanchinál Saundatti and Sangráshikop. The object of his treaty was not so much to give over to the Kolhápur branch the sovereignty of the country ceded by the treaty, as to exclude the Kolhápur chief from all that lay to the north of the Krishna and from any share in the management of the rest of the Marátha territories. The object with which this treaty was concluded seems to have been gained as the Belgaum district seems at no time to have been in the possession of the Kolhápur chiefs, but, except the portions held by the Sávanur Nawáb and other petty chiefs, continued to be managed by Sháhu and the Peshwa.[2] The Nizám also divided the revenue with Sháhu and the Peshwa in such parts of the Bombay Karnátak as were not in the Marátha home rule or had not wholly been granted in private estates. About the same time (1730) Nág Sávant, the second son of Phond Sávant (1709-1737) of Sávantvádi, took the Hire and Chandgad districts above the Sahyádris, established a post at Chandgad about twenty-two miles west of Belgaum, and built the fort of Gandharvagad about four miles north-east of Chandgad.[3] Thus in 1730 Sháhu shared authority in the present district of Belgaum with the *desái* of Hukeri who was still independent in the west corner, with the Vádi chief in the south-west hills, and with the Sávanur Nawáb into whose hands, as his deputy, Nizám-ul-Mulk had passed the town and fort of Belgaum, and who held other parts of Southern, Eastern, and Central Belgaum. In 1734 Jayappa the *desái* of Navalgund built the fort of Saundatti.

The Sávanur Nawáb, 1746.

In 1736 the Deccan claims of Peshwa Bájiráv (1720-1740) were enhanced by the hereditary grant of the *sardeshpándegiri* or five per cent on the revenue of the six provinces.[4] The collection of the Maráthadues in the country between the Krishna and the Tungbhadrá was yearly farmed to bankers. In 1746 Majid Khán, the Nawáb of Sávanur, who had long before thrown off dependence on the Moghals, resisted the authority of the Marátha farmer, named Bápu Náik Bárámatikar. In consequence of this a Marátha army under Peshwa Báláji's (1740-1761) cousin Chimnáji Bháu marched against the Sávanur Nawáb. The Nawáb was not strong enough to face the Maráthás and had to agree to a treaty under which he promised to yield thirty-six of his districts, among them Pádsháp ur, Kittur, Parasgad, Yádvád, Gokák, and Torgal. He was allowed to keep twenty-two districts together with the forts of Belgaum and Torgal which were his family possessions.[5] These possessions do not seem to have passed into the hands of the Maráthás. On Sháhu's death in 1749 Peshwa Báláji's scheme for usurping the sole authority offended his cousin Sadáshivráo Bháu. Sadáshiv left Poona in disgust and

[1] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 224.
[2] West's Kolhápur, 6; West's Southern Marátha Country, 22.
[3] Bombay Gazetteer, X. 441. [4] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 235.
[5] Bom. Gov. Sel. CXII, 208.

was appointed Peshwa to the Kolhápur chief. About this time Kolhápur seems to have recovered the Chandgad district from Nág Sávant who had held it since 1730, and obtained the cession of the forts of Párgad, Kálánandigad, and Chandgad, together with a grant of land yielding £500 (Rs. 5000) a year.[1] Shortly after a settlement was effected between Peshwa Báláji and Sadáshivráo under which Sadáshivráo left Kolhápur and returned as prime minister to Poona. Towards the close of 1753 Peshwa Báláji made a land-quelling or *mulkgiri* expedition into the Karnátak to recover the arrears of the Marátha tribute. Beyond Marátha limits the distinction between revenue collecting and war disappeared. Whenever a village resisted, its officers were seized and forced to pay by threats and sometimes by torture. The garrisons of fortified places who made an unsuccessful resistance were put to the sword.[2] In February 1754, on the return of the army from Maisur the Maráthás took Gokák, which, though it had been ceded by the 1746 treaty, was still in the possession of the Sávanur Nawáb.[3] After taking Gokák the Marátha army marched west against a kinsman of the Vádi chief who still held the district of Hire. The *desái* of Hire was compelled to cede the Peshwa half of his land; the other half of forty-seven villages was continued to him, and was held by a descendant of his as late as 1840.[4] The neighbourhood of the Marátha army alarmed Iláchi Beg the Sávanur Nawáb's governor of Belgaum, and he wrote to Goa for help. But the Portuguese dread of the Marátha power, which had lately (1740) driven them out of almost all their possessions in the North Konkan was so strong that the Governor of Goa declined (15th May 1754) to help.[5] In 1755, in consequence of the refusal of Abdul Hakim Khán the Sávanur Nawáb to give up a Marátha deserter who had entered his service, the Marátha army under Peshwa Báláji, helped by the Nizám, marched against Sávanur, and so reduced the Nawáb that in 1756 he was forced to come to terms.

*The Patvardhans.*

This treaty deprived the Nawáb of eleven districts which are now in Dhárwár. As some compensation he was given part of the district of Parasgad. Probably about this time Belgaum fort passed to the Peshwa. The Peshwa seems not to have taken the lands of Belgaum under direct management, but to have left them for the most part to the *desáis* who were held responsible for the revenue.[6] In 1761, to check the power of Kolhápur and as a safeguard against the disorders which followed the death of Sambháji of Kolhápur, Báláji Peshwa gave the fort of Miraj and a military land grant or *saranjám* to Govind Haripant Patvardhan, one of his most active supporters. In 1763 Bálaji Peshwa reduced the Hukeri *desái* who since Shiváji's time had been independent, and, with other parts of the Karnátak, handed his district to the Kolhápur chief on condition of receiving a yearly present or *nazar* of £50,000 (Rs. 5,00,000).[7] In 1764 Govind Haripant Patvardhan of Miraj received as a military grant or *saranjám* to himself and his two nephews, Parshurám Rámchandra of Tásgaon and Nilkanthrái Trimbak of Kurundvád, lands yielding a yearly

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[1] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 272. [2] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 281.
[3] Stokes' Belgaum, 49. [4] Stokes' Belgaum, 50. [5] Stokes' Belgaum, 50.
[6] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 287,289; Stokes' Belgaum, 51. [7] Stokes' Belgaum, 52.

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The Peshwás, 1746-1776.

*The Patvardhans.*

rental of £250,000 (Rs.25,00,000). Among the lands thus assigned, within Belgaum limits, were the villages in the Ainápur and Mánjre *karyáts* or divisions; eight detached villages or *phutgáms* of Hukeri, and the two *pránts* or districts of Yádvád and Sháhápur near Belgaum. The yearly tribute of £14,000 (Rs. 1,40,000) paid by the Kittur *desái* also went to the support of the Patvardhan contingent. In 1769 Peshwa Mádhavráo (1761-1772), enraged by the continual inroads of Kolhápur marauders, deprived Kolhápur of Hukeri, and, in 1770, appointed a mámlatdár of his own, named Rámchandra Mahádev Paránjape, who, at the same time, held the fort of Manoli about twelve miles south of Chikodi in pledge for money advanced to Kolhápur. Late in the year the Kolhápur districts of Manoli and Chikodi were seized and given to the Patvardhans. This was the origin of the long and bitter enmity between Kolhápur and the Patvardhans, marked by a series of attacks and reprisals which continued as late as the early part of the nineteenth century.[1]

*Haidar Ali, 1764.*

Before these quarrels disturbed the peace of Belgaum a new power had risen in the south under Haidar Ali. This adventurer, about 1762, had deposed the Hindu king of Maisur and usurped authority. Taking advantage of the disastrous defeat of the Maráthás at the battle of Pánipat in 1761 (7th January) and their wars with the Nizám, Haidar Ali defeated the Sávanur Nawáb Abdul Hakim Khán, and in 1764 succeeded in stretching the northern limits of his kingdom across the Malprabha and Ghatprabha nearly to the banks of the Krishna.[2] In Belgaum his posts seem not to have passed the Malprabha as he held neither Gokák nor Belgaum.[3] These aggressions of Haidar's stirred the Maráthás to action and in the same year (1764) two armies, one under Gopálráo Patvardhan of Miraj and the second under Peshwa Mádhavráo (1761-1772) were sent to clear the Bombay Karnátak of Haidar's troops. The first army under Gopálráo Patvardhan was routed by Haidar's general Fazl-ul-la Khán; the second, under Peshwa Mádhavráo, succeeded in driving Haidar's troops out of the Bombay Karnátak, and in compelling (1765) Haidar to give up all claims on the Sávanur Nawáb and his country.[4] In 1772 Peshwa Mádhavráo died of consumption, which he believed was due to the curses heaped on him by the Kolhápur Ráni Jiji Bái, because in 1770 he had seized her two districts of Manoli and Chikodi. Shortly before Mádhavráo's death these two districts were restored to Kolhápur,[5] but the quarrels between Kolhápur and the Patvardhans did not cease. The death of Peshwa Mádhavráo in 1772, the murder of the young Peshwa Náráyanráo in 1773, the usurpation of authority by Rághoba or Raghunáthráo in 1773, and the opposition of the Poona ministers to Rághunatháro's claims to the headship of the Marátha state, were events of which the enemies of the Poona government, Kolhápur, Maisur, and Haidarabad were not slow to take advantage. The Kolhápur minister Yashvantráo Sindia, emboldened by an alliance with Haidar

[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 52, 53.
[2] Wilks' South of India, I. 461; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 330.
[3] Stokes' Belgaum, 52.
[4] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 331-332; Wilks' South of India, I. 462-466.
[5] Stokes' Belgaum, 54.

Chapter VII. History. The Peshwás, 1746-1776.

Ali, made frequent raids on the Patvardhan territories; in September 1773 Haidar Ali sent his son Tipu with a strong detachment to recover the districts taken from him in 1765; and in 1774 Nizám Ali and his brother Salábatjang of Adoni entered the Marátha districts and levied contributions as far as Athni and Miraj.[1] In 1773 Konherráo Trimbak Patvardhan of Kurundvád marched into Kolhápur, destroyed many villages, and defeated the minister Yashvantráo at Bhoj twelve miles north-west of Chikodi. Towards the close of the year he again invaded the kingdom with greater success.[2] Vámanráo Patvardhan acted against Salábatjang and compelled him to retire. Against Haider Ali's son Tipu Peshwa Raghunáthráo marched in person. But before hostilities against Tipu were begun, the opposition of the Poona ministers to Raghunáth burst forth. This, and his want of money led Raghunáth to conclude a treaty by which Haidar Ali acknowledged Raghunáth as the sole head of the Marátha state and agreed to pay him and him only a yearly tribute of £60,000 (Rs. 6,00,000).[3]

Maisur, 1776-1790.

Shortly after the conclusion of the treaty of Surat with the Bombay Government, on the 6th of March 1775, Raghunáth proposed to Haidar that Haidar should take the whole of the Marátha territory up to the right bank of the Krishna holding himself ready to help Raghunáth with troops and money.[4] Under this agreement, in April 1776, Haidar marched northwards, and, before the rains, pushed his conquests as far as the territory of the Sávanur Nawáb. The Poona ministers sent a small force under Konherráo Trimbak Patvardhan to drive Haidar's garrisons from Sávanur. This expedition failed. In a battle near Dhárwár Konherráo was defeated and slain, and Pándurang Pant was taken prisoner by Haidar's general Muhammad Ali. In 1777 Parshurám Bháu of Tásgaon, now the leader of the Patvardhans, assembled a large army at Miraj, and, with the Nizám's troops, took the field against Haidar. He crossed the Krishna, but, as Ibráhim Beg the Nizám's general was bribed by Haidar, Parshurám was forced to recross the Krishna without risking an action.[5] By the end of 1778 the whole country south of the Malprabha in Belgaum and south of the Krishna in Bijápur passed into the hands of Haidar Ali. He found the country chiefly held by hereditary *desáis*, and for the present he agreed to receive their accustomed tribute or *peshkash*, on the condition of prompt payment as a free gift of a farther sum equal to their former payment.[6] The chief Belgaum *desáis* whom Haidar treated in this way were the *desáis* of Navalgund and Nargund, now in Dhárwár, and of Kittur. The Navalgund *desái* had to pay a present or *nazarána* of £12,500 (*Huns* 1,00,000). When the country was subject to them the Maráthás had assumed the management of all government or *khálsat* villages in the *desáis'* estates and continued to the *desáis* only the private or *inám* villages and their hereditary claims or *hakvartans* in government villages. Haidar restored the charge of all the villages to the *desáis*.[7]

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[1] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 363, 369; Stokes' Belgaum, 53. [2] Stokes' Belgaum, 54.
[3] Wilks' South of India, II. 160; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 366.
[4] Wilks' South of India, II. 173. [5] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 400.
[6] Wilks' South of India, II. 187. [7] Stokes' Belgaum, 55.

Chapter VII. History. Maisur, 1776-1790.

The Poona ministers were too fully occupied with the war against Raghunáth and the English to allow them to make any serious attempt to dislodge Haidar. Haidar did not remain quiet. In 1777 he helped the Kolhápur minister Yashvantráo, a supporter of Raghunáth with money, and enabled the minister to drive off Rámchandra Hari a Poona officer who had been sent to retake Manoli and Chikodi which had been given to Kolhápur by Mádhavráo Peshwa (1761-1772) immediately before his death. On Rámchandra's defeat Mahádáji Sindia was sent against Kolhápur with a large army. As Haidar's promised force did not appear in time the Kolhápur minister was forced to come to terms. He agreed to pay £150,000 (Rs. 15 *lákhs*) for which Chikodi and Manoli were given as security, and to abstain from plundering the neighbouring districts and from harbouring rebels against the Peshwa.[1] After Mahádáji Sindia left in 1777 Parshurám Bháu of Tásgaon again began attacking Kolhápur and laid siege to Akkivát about fifteen miles north of Chikodi. Akkivát was gallantly defended by two brothers, but the death of both in an assault and want of provisions forced the garrison to surrender.[2] About the same time Khem Sávant II. (1755-1803) of Sávantvádi fomented a disturbance in Kolhápur with the result that the Kolhápur minister attached as much of the country as was held by Hire *desái*, a kinsman of the Sávantvádi chief, and took his fort of Gandharvagad. In 1778 the Kittur *desái* Irappa, backed by Haidar Ali overran and occupied Gokák. In 1779 to establish friendly relations with Abdul Hakim Khán, the Sávanur Nawáb, Haidar married his daughter to the Nawáb's son and his second son to the Nawáb's daughter. Not only were those of his own territories which were conquered during the late war (1776-1778) restored to the Nawáb, on payment of a tribute, but Parasgad including Sampgaon and Bidi, Gokák Pádsháp ur and Yádvád which had been taken from him by the Maráthás in 1756, were also given back to him. The Nawáb's authority over these districts was nominal. Parasgad with Sampgaon and Bidi, which since 1756 had belonged to the Kittur *desái*, another vassal of Haidar, were continued to the *desái* after a nominal transfer to the Nawáb. The Kittur *desái* also kept Gokák which he had occupied in 1778. Pádsháp ur, Yádvád and Belgaum never belonged to Haidar. They were held by the Maráthás throughout the whole of this time.[3] In 1779 Parshurám Bháu succeeded not only in reconquering Gokák for the Peshwa but in taking the Kittur *desái* prisoner. Gokák continued to belong to the Peshwa till 1783, when it was given in military grant or *saranjám* to the Patvardhans at a yearly revenue calculated at £9811 (Rs. 98,110).[4]

In 1779 the escape of Raghunáth from the banks of the Narbada and his reception by General Goddard at Surat induced the Poona ministers to form an alliance with Haidar and the Nizám. Both of these powers thought themselves aggrieved by the English and the object of the alliance was to drive the English out of India. To induce him to join this alliance, the Poona ministers agreed to acknowledge

[1] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 400; West's Kolhápur, 8. [2] Stokes' Belgaum, 58.
[3] Stokes' Belgaum, 56; Wilks' Mysore, II. 207; Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 210.
[4] Stokes' Belgaum, 56-57.

Haidar's right to the Marátha territory south of the Krishna on payment of a yearly tribute of £110,000 (Rs. 11 *lákhs*).[1] Kolhápur was also induced to join by the cession of Manoli and Chikodi. This cession was only in name, as for twelve years, they remained undisturbed in the hands of Parshurám Bháu, to liquidate a contribution of £150,000 (Rs. 15 *lákhs*)[2] imposed on Kolhápur to meet the expense of the late wars. In 1781 Haidar's demands on the local estate-holders or *desáis* with whom he had negotiated in 1778 rose so high that Lingáppa the chief of Navalgund, after great disturbances, sought shelter in the Peshwa's territory. On the 17th of May 1782 the treaty of Sálbái brought to a close the war between the English and the Maráthás. While the treaty of Sálbái was being negotiated, Nána Phadnavis (1774-1800) the minister at Poona persuaded Haidar to restore the territory south of the Krishna, threatening, if his demand was not complied with, to join the English against Haidar. The rivalry between Nána Phadnavis and Mahádáji Sindia enabled Haidar to evade the Marátha demand. Haidar died in the latter part of 1782 (20th December) and was succeeded by his son Tipu (1782-1799). In 1782 Nána Phadnavis called on Tipu for arrears of tribute which he acknowledged to be due but evaded paying. Nána then formed an alliance with the Nizám to recover from Tipu the districts which both had lost through Haidar's encroachments. A hitch in the terms of the agreement enabled Tipu to strengthen his frontier by taking into his own hands the fortresses,[3] hitherto, under Haidar's arrangement with Raghunáth in 1774, held by their Marátha possessors.[4] In 1785 Tipu seized Nargund about thirty miles north-east of Dhárwár, Rámdurg, and Kittur, placing in Kittur a strong Maisur detachment. Tipu was not satisfied with the mere occupation of these forts; he forcibly circumcised many Hindus south of the Krishna and 2000 Bráhman disciples of Shankrácharya destroyed themselves to avoid the rite.[5] These outrages roused the energy of Nána Phadnavis who in 1786 formed an offensive alliance with the Nizám against Tipu. Their first efforts were directed to the recovery of the Marátha districts between the Krishna and the Tungbhadra. While the main army of the confederates advanced towards Bádámi in Bijápur and then on Dhárwár, Tukoji Holkar and Ganesh Pant Beheri were detached with 25,000 horse to attack a body of Tipu's troops under Burhán-ud-din near Kittur and to drive his garrisons from that district. Holkar's detachment succeeded in driving out Tipu's troops from every part of Kittur except the fort which was invested for more than a month, but with no result.[6] Though the balance of advantage in the war leaned to Tipu's side, fears of an English invasion led him in April 1787 to give Kittur and other places to the Maráthás. In the three years ending 1787, during which Kittur was under Tipu, his lieutenant Badr-ul-Zamán Khán took the management of the *desái's* estate or *jágir*

[1] Wilks' South of India, II. 208-210; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 441.
[2] Stokes' Belgaum, 57. [3] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 465.
[4] Wilks' South of India, II. 536. [5] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 446.
[6] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 468-69.

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lands into his own hands, stripped him of all power, and set apart a sum for his support.[1] While the war between the Maráthás and Tipu kept the south in disorder the west was also disturbed. The chief of Nesari in Kolhápur joined the chief of Anur in a rebellion against his master the Kolhápur chief, and possessed himself of the fort of Vallabhgad about fifteen miles south-west of Chikodi, Gandharvagad about seventeen miles north-west of Belgaum, and Bhimgad about twenty-five miles south-west of Belgaum. In 1787 the Kolhápur army crushed the power of the rebels and took the three forts.[2] About the same time (1786) Parshurám Bháu took from the Torgal chief the fort of Manoli, about twenty-five miles south-east of Gokák, and added it to his possessions.

Third Maisur War, 1790 - 1792.

Tipu never intended to carry out the treaty of 1787. As soon as the Marátha army had recrossed the Krishna Kittur fort was again seized by the Maisur troops. On this occasion the *desái* Mallasarjya was taken prisoner, but he soon escaped and took refuge in the Marátha camp.[3] It was not till Tipu's attacks on Trávankor had broken the ties that bound the English to his alliance and set them free to join a confederacy against him, that the Poona government decided to punish Tipu's bad faith. In 1790 (1st June) a treaty was concluded between the English the Maráthás and the Nizám, whose object was to attack Maisur. Parshurám Bháu Patvardhan, who was appointed commander of the Marátha army, repaired to Tásgaon to make preparations. The English had promised to help Parshurám with two battalions and a suitable force of artillery. The English troops, consisting of the 8th and 11th battalions of native infantry, one company of European artillery, and two companies of gun lascars, with six field pieces, sailed from Bombay under Captain Little, disembarked at Sangameshvar in Ratnágiri on the 29th of May, ascended the Ámba pass by the 10th of June, and joined the Marátha army at Tásgaon in the latter part of June. July was spent in preparation. Besides by the English Parshurám Bháu was aided by a partisan officer named Dhondhu Pant Gokhale in command of 1000 horse. The confederate army crossed the Belgaum limits on the 19th of August and the English officers caught their first sight of the Krishna from the rising ground above Kágvád about twenty-three miles west of Athni. Thence they marched to the Krishna and encamped at Yedur, a favourite halting place with a magnificent grove of mangoes and tamarinds, about ten miles south of Kágvád. The Krishna was crossed in basket boats and the detachments were employed from the 10th to the 16th of August in getting over the guns and baggage. The army remained camped at Kaláli on the south bank of the Krishna till the 19th when they left the river, and, passing some miles west of Ráybág, in three marches reached the Ghatprabha opposite Gokák.[4] At Gokák a company of English officers went to see the falls whose thundering roar had been in their ears all the night. The town

[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 58. [2] Bom. Gov. Sel. VIII. 504.
[3] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 481; Stokes' Belgaum, 58.
[4] Moor's Narrative of Captain Little's Detachment, 2, 3.

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*Condition, 1790.*

of Gokák was remarkably neat and clean, then, as now, owing its prosperity to its weavers. The fort contained no artillery. On the 31st of August the British battalions started from Gokák and marched about twenty-five miles south-east to Manoli, camping for the night at Sidápur. On the 4th of September they crossed the Malprabha and entered Tipu's territory. They next marched to Saundatti going by way of Ugargol round Parasgad hill. From Saundatti they reached Gurl Hosur where they remained one day and then went on to Kallur within Dhárwár limits.[1] The Maráthás succeeded in driving out Tipu's garrisons from fortified villages and rapidly occupied the country. The people helped to expel Tipu's militia, or *sibandis*, and the militia, who were easily reconciled to a change of masters, enlisted with Parshurám Bháu, and aided him in collecting the outstanding revenue.[2] During this time the army was busy with the siege of Dhárwár which was gallantly defended by Tipu's general Badr-ul-Zamán. When the siege of Dhárwár had lasted from September to December with varying success and little progress, an additional English force was called in. A detachment under Colonel Frederick, composed of the 2nd Bombay regiment and the ninth battalion of native infantry sailed from Bombay on the 19th of November (1790), entered the Jaygad creek, reached the foot of the Ámba pass by the 14th of December, and, after passing through Sátára and Kolhápur, appeared on the 26th before Chikodi, a large and respectable town with an extensive market and a good manufactory of cloth chiefly for local use. The neighbourhood was famed for grapes of extraordinary size and flavour.[3] On the 27th of December the detachment marched about fifteen miles south to Hukeri, a poor town belonging to Parshurám Bháu, but with clear traces of former greatness. From Hukeri they marched ten miles south to Pádsháp̄ur, a pretty little village commanded by a decent fortification on a hill. From the number of water-courses the journey took eight hours. On the 28th of December they crossed the Márkándeya. On the 29th after leaving Pádsháp̄ur they passed through a thick forest called Manoli-Bári or the Manoli pass, ten miles of which was rugged and stony. The forest ran south for fifteen miles and lost itself in the hills to the south of Murgod. In some parts where the rivers took too great a sweep the forest was considered the boundary between the Maráthás and Maisur.[4] The detachment halted at Nesargi or Nesauri, a small village about fifteen miles south of Pádsháp̄ur. On the 30th of December they marched six miles to Imsal, a miserable village where sums of money were collected and distributed among the poor. On the 31st they marched eighteen miles south to Dodvád a pretty large place with a good-looking fortification lately repaired. After leaving Dodvád, Colonel Frederick joined the army at Dhárwár. After the fall of Dhárwár, on the 4th of April, the army moved south of the Tungbhadra as far as Seringapatam. Parshurám Bháu accompanied the English

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[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 60.
[2] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 486.
[3] Moor's Narrative, 14.
[4] Moor's Narrative, 151.

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*Condition, 1792.*

army to Seringapatam, leaving the conquered country in the hands of Dhondu Pant Gokhale, who was authorized to collect money from the Kittur *desái* for Parshurám Bháu. In February 1792 the third Maisur war (1790-1792) was brought to a close. The victorious army moved northwards and again passed through Belgaum. On the 7th of May 1792 the army marched from Betigeri in Dhárwár to Dodvád, and from Dodvád to Murgod by a very good road. In point of soil the country round Murgod was as rich as the best garden mould. A little north of Murgod were some gardens with a well of excellent water. On the 9th of June they entered the Manoli forest, the rugged and stony ground wearying their cattle. They halted at Jamnahal a very poor village. For two miles north of Jamnahal the road was rugged and confined by trees. A march of fourteen miles brought them to Gokák where there was an extensive manufacture and sale of silk and cotton. On the 12th they crossed the Ghatprabha, and, after a march of three miles reached the village of Árbhávi near which was a beautiful mango grove enclosing a handsome building and a well ornamented with sculptures in the Kánarese style. After continuing their march for eight miles through a fairly good country they halted at Bhendvád about fifteen miles south-east of Chikodi. A nine miles' march through a stony barren tract brought them to Ráybág, a small village with no good houses, poorly inhabited, and with nothing to tempt settlers except some gardens to the north of the town. From Ráybág they marched north and crossed the Halhalla, or according to the Musalmáns the Dudhnála or Milk Stream, with the two villages of Birdi and Chinchani on the two banks. They found Chinchani a neat and populous village. From Chinchani they marched north and halted at Kudchi on the south bank of the Krishna. Kudchi had been a Musalmán town of some note, but Bráhman intrigues fomented by Parshurám Bháu had so distressed it that most of the Musalmáns had left. From Kudchi they crossed the Krishna to Ainápur. They found the Krishna the boundary line of the Marátha and Kánarese languages, and they also marked a difference in the style of houses on the two banks of the river. South of the Krishna the houses were flat-roofed and covered with mud or clay; north of the Krishna the roofs were pitched and thatched. Ainápur was a pretty large village with several neat buildings, both in the Hindu and Musalmán styles. They passed the villages of Katral, Tangri, and Shinál, and halted at Athni in a rich country reached by a very good road. The town belonged to Rástia who had spent much money in improving it. He had made several buildings, and, in 1785, planted an avenue of mango trees for about ten miles to the Krishna. The town was large, well-peopled, and thriving, trading with Surat in the north, Bombay in the west, and Ráichor in the east. The manufactures were silk and cotton cloth. From Athni they marched about seven miles east to Burchi a small village. Five miles farther east brought them to Aigali a good-looking village. From Aigali a fair road across an open country, apparently well peopled and capable of tillage, led them to Talsang

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a respectable town. From Talsang they passed into Bijápur.[1]

As, under the treaty of Seringapatam, concluded in February 1792, the Marátha frontier was extended to the Tungbhadra, Parasgad and the Kittur *desái's* lands, which had been subject to Tipu, again became part of the Marátha country. These districts were assigned to Parshurám Bháu, who, in the late war had been forced to raise troops largely in excess of the number for which the Patvardhan's military grant or *saranjám* had been assigned. He placed a mámlatdár in Kittur and made it subordinate to Dhárwár, the *desái* receiving only an allowance for his support. On his return from Seringapatam, Parshurám Bháu found that by intrigues and by raising troops with the money obtained from the Kittur *desái*, Dhondu Pant Gokhle had grown so strong that he was forced to temporise with him. In 1793, just after his return, Parshurám turned his arms against Kolhápur and completely humbled the Kolhápur chief. About this time the district or *sarkár* of Ázamnagar or Belgaum, forming a part of the province or *subha* of Bijápur, contained fifteen subdivisions yielding a yearly revenue of £135,451 (Rs. 13,54,510).[2] The intrigues which followed the suicide of Mádhavráo Peshwa in 1795 and the accession of the last Peshwa Bájiráo (1795 - 1817) took Parashurám Bháu to Poona where he quarrelled with Nána Phadnavis. Parshurám Bháu remained at Poona till 1798. During his absence Nána incited the Kolhápur chief to attack Parshurám Bháu's districts. After the rains of 1796 the Kolhápur chief plundered some villages belonging to Parshurám Bháu and took the fort of Vallabhgad above Sankeshvar. He laid siege to Tásgaon, took and sacked it, burning Parshurám Bháu's palace to the ground. He also took possession of Chikodi and of Manoli after a siege of one month. The forts of Saundalgi about ten miles north-west, and of Birdi about sixteen miles north-east of Chikodi, were also captured by the Kolhápur troops with some loss owing to the obstinate resistance of the garrison who mined the chief towers and blew them into the air as the assailants entered. Towards the close of 1797 the Kolhápur army again entered Belgaum. Gokák was forced to pay a tribute of £12,000 (Rs. 1,20,000), the Kittur *desái* was mulcted in a large sum as tribute, and officers were left to manage the country and collect the revenue on behalf of Kolhápur.[3] Dhondhu Pant Gokhale, who through Bájiráo's friendship had been appointed the Peshwa's governor or *sar-subhedár* in the Bombay Karnátak, was the only officer of the Peshwa who opposed the Kolhápur troops. In 1798, he defeated unaided the Kolhápur army near Dhárwár, but instead of

[1] Moor's Narrative, 252 - 271 ; 300 - 308.

[2] The details are : Haveli yielding Rs. 2,78,350, Ájere Rs. 56,250, Kápsi Rs. 30,000, Mahpor Rs. 78,990, Gokák Rs. 11,250, Sháhápur Rs. 46,867, Mansari Rs. 15,000, Tole Rs. 37,500, Merkikhánápur Rs. 37,500, Mujali Rs. 50,193, Kanti Rs. 53,893, Sholápur Rs. 61,125, Sedelgaum Rs. 12,872, Tabevali Rs. 3,18,750, and Talari Rs. 1,75,975. Waring's Maráthás, 245. The Athni sub-division with a yearly revenue of Rs. 69,466 formed part of the district or *sirkár* of Bijápur Darubzefi.

[3] Bom. Gov. Sel. VIII. 506.

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making a proper use of his victory he robbed the down-trodden chief of Navalgund of his two districts of Navalgund and Gadag in Dhárwár. The chief, the ancestor of the *desái* of Sirsangi in Belgaum, since 1756, had been deprived of his large estates by the Peshwa, who gave him some villages for his private support. In 1790 Parshurám Bháu promised to help him to recover his estates. The Peshwa's government, while refusing to release the lands of the estateholders until the expenses of the third Maisur war (1790-1792) had been reimbursed, granted ten more villages for the Navalgund chief's support, which are those still remaining with the family, except Belári which was given in exchange for Gurl Hosur. The chief was not satisfied with this small concession. He intended to go to Poona to negotiate the release of his whole estate, but the confusion which followed the death of Mádhavráo Peshwa (1774-1795) made him put off his visit. In 1798, while brooding over his misfortunes, he was deprived of Navalgund and Gadag by Dhondhu Pant Gokhale. The beaten Kolhápur army was reinforced and defeated Gokhale, and, with the object of binding the *desái* to his interest, the Kolhápur chief restored him the whole of his former estate.[1] In 1799 Nána Phadnavis was reconciled to Parshurám Bháu. Before beginning operations against Tipu in the fourth Maisur war (13th February-4th May 1799), Parshurám received orders from Poona to watch the Kolhápur chief, who was always friendly to Tipu, and to prevent him laying the country waste. Parshurám Bháu marched south and retook all the forts between the Ghatprabha and the Malprabha. In September he passed from Gokák and halted in great force at Chikodi. The Kolhápur army of 16,000 men, led by the chief in person, was camped on the low hills near Patankodi, a small village three miles east of Nipáni. In the battle which followed Parshurám Bháu was mortally wounded. He was taken prisoner, carried into the presence of the Kolhápur chief, and, though this is denied by all belonging to Kolhápur, was cut to pieces.[2] After the death of Parshurám Bháu his son Rámchandra, commonly called Appa Sáheb, fled to Poona for aid. His prayer was granted as both the Peshwa and Sindia were more than ever anxious to repress Kolhápur. A large body of Poona troops, with five battalions under Major Brownrigg from Sindia's disciplined levy, marched against Kolhápur,[3] while Dhondhu Pant Gokhale, the Peshwa's *sar-subhedár* or governor of the Bombay Karnátak, was also directed to march to Kolhápur. The Peshwa's army appeared before Kolhápur in November 1799 and the siege lasted till March 1800. The siege would have been disastrous to Kolhápur, but for the death of Nána Phadnavis on the 13th of March 1800. By Nána's death power passed to the party at Poona, who were hostile not to Kolhápur but to the Patvardhans. The Peshwa Bájiráo was the Patvardhans' bitterest enemy, and Sindia had long wished

[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 62-63.

[2] In 1790 Captain Moor described Parshurám Bháu as a man about fifty or fifty-five years of age with a stature rather under the common size. Though not very well looking he had something interesting and a great deal of good nature in his countenance. Narrative, 17.

[3] Bom. Gov. Sel. VIII. 507; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 547.

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to possess himself of their extensive and rich estates. It was this treachery which prevented the capture of Kolhápur. Rámchandra Patvardhan, hearing of the arrangement between Bájiráo and Sindia retired from Kolhápur, and Sindia's five battalions were ordered to attack the Patvardhan estates. Sidojiráo Nimbalkar, commonly called Appa Sáheb *desái* of Nipáni, who, under Sindia's directions, had been engaged in a series of forays into the Miraj country, besieged the fort of Neráli between Sankeshvar and Hukeri. The siege was at first unsuccessful. On the arrival of Sindia's troops the garrison left the place, and Neráli was taken in the name of the Nipáni *desái*.[1] Sindia's battalions were shortly after recalled; but the Nipánikar at the head of a body of horse plundered and wasted the country from Miraj to Bijápur.[2] At this time Sindia forced the Peshwa to cede Manoli and Chikodi to Kolhápur and they were taken by Sindia's and the Nipáni *desai's* troops nominally on behalf of Kolhápur.

Colonel Wellesley, 1800.

On the 4th of May 1799 the fourth Maisur war was brought to an end by the capture of Seringapatam, the death of Tipu, and the destruction of Musalmán power in Maisur. Among other territory the English, who had borne the burden of the war, obtained Sunda in North Kánara on the western border of Dhárwár. On the fall of Seringapatam, Dhundhia Vágh, who under Haidar had risen to a high rank from a common soldier and who since 1794 had been imprisoned by Tipu for refusing to become a Musalmán, was set at liberty. On his release he began to plunder, and, finding pursuit too hot in the English territory, retired north into the Marátha country, and, at Dhárwár, gathered round him a desperate band. Before going to Kolhápur Dhondhu Pant attacked Dhundhia, and captured his family and all his effects. After this defeat in August or September 1799, Dhundhia entered the Kolhápur service. He soon after quarrelled with the Kolhápur chief and in November began to plunder the country, while Dhondhu Pant Gokhale and other Marátha chiefs were engaged in the siege of Kolhápur. He plundered several places near Kittur, took the title of the King of the Two Worlds, and was joined by the discontented of all classes, chiefly Musalmáns from Aurangabad and Haidarabad, and by almost the whole of Tipu's cavalry. By the 18th of June 1800 Dhundhia had gained possession of the whole country north of the Tungbhadra and threatened the territory lately acquired by the English. Colonel Wellesley, afterwards the Duke of Wellington, who was in Maisur, represented that it was impossible to settle the Marátha frontier so long as Dhundhia remained at large. The Poona government seemed gladly to take advantage of Colonel Wellesley's proposal to clear the Marátha country of Dhundhia and his men, and ordered Dhondhu Pant Gokhale and Appa Sáheb the son of Parshurám Bháu to co-operate with Colonel Wellesley. It was arranged that Dhondhu Pant Gokhale was not to cross the Malprabha till Colonel Wellesley had crossed the Varda. Dhondhu Pant did not keep to this arrangement, a mistake which

[1] Bom. Gov. Sel. VIII. 510.

[2] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 551.

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Colonel Wellesley, 1800.

cost him his life. Colonel Wellesley crossed the Tungbhadra with a large army on the 26th of June 1800, and the Varda on the 7th of July. More than a week before Colonel Wellesley had crossed the Varda and while Dhundhia was camped at Hubli in Dhárwár, Dhondhu Pant, contrary to agreement, crossed the Malprabha, and entered the Kittur country nominally to act against Dhundhia, really with the object of making peace with him. He restored to Dhundhia his family and all the effects that had fallen into his hands in 1799. Dhundhia suspected Gokhale of double dealing and marched against him, and, to the south of Kittur, on the 30th of June, attacked the rear guard which was commanded by Gokhale, and put his force to flight. Dhondhu Pant was killed, and, in fulfilment of a vow made when he was defeated in 1799, Dhundhia dyed his moustaches in Gokhale's heart-blood.[1] Dhundhia remained in the Kittur country until Colonel Wellesley's arrival at Sávanur drew him in that direction. He did not dare to risk an engagement, and fled. Towards the end of July he lay at Saundatti with his main force. After clearing Dhárwár of Dhundhia's adherents, on the 29th of July, Colonel Wellesley, accompanied by Appa Sáheb the son of Parshurám Bháu and Bápu Gokhale the nephew of Dhondhu Pant, crossed the Bennihalla at Alagvádi, about fifteen miles south of Saundatti. When he heard that Colonel Wellesley had reached Alagvádi, Dhundhia at once broke from Saundatti. He sent one part of his army west to Dodvád, a second east, and a third with baggage north to Manoli. On the 30th of July Colonel Wellesley marched from Alagvádi to Ugargol east of Parasgad hill, and hearing that Dhundhia was opposite Manoli with his baggage, in the hope of surprising him, pressed on twenty-six miles to the Malprabha opposite Manoli. At three on the same afternoon Colonel Wellesley directed a cavalry onset on the enemy's camp. Lieutenant-Colonel Torin attacked their left with the 1st and 4th Regiments, and Colonel Stevenson and Colonel Peter their front and right with the 25th Dragoons and the 2nd Regiment of cavalry. Dhundhia's camp was strong with its rear to the Malprabha, covered by the fort of Manoli on the other side of it, and a deep stream along its front and left. The 2nd Regiment of cavalry was the only corps which forced its way into the camp, but every person in the camp was either killed or driven into the river. All the baggage, two elephants, and many camels horses and bullocks were taken. Numbers were drowned or shot in trying to cross the river, and many women and children were taken prisoners. Major Blaquiers with four troops of the 25th Dragoons pursued to the east a party which appear to have been outside of the camp, and drove them into the river. Six of Dhundhia's guns had been passed over the swollen stream before the attack. Half an hour after the camp was carried a party of the 25th Dragoons attempted to swim the river and seize a boat which was lying under the fort of Manoli. The force of the flood carried them below the spot where the boat lay. But two officers Lieutenant Fitchet and Jackson succeeded in stemming the current, brought

[1] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, II. 51; Grant Duff's Maráthás, 551.

back the boat and with its aid the guns were soon taken, and to prevent them falling into the enemy's hands were destroyed.[1] About 5000 men were driven into the Malprabha and drowned. Among the rest one of the leaders, Bubber Jang, dressed in armour, rode his horse into the river and was drowned. During the action the Kolhápur fort of Manoli helped Dhundhia by firing on the English. After the action it was abandoned by the Kolhápur garrison, and, before Appa Sáheb Patvardhan's troops could get into it, was taken by the Páligár of Talur about eight miles north-west of Manoli.[2] His Marátha allies were of little use to Colonel Wellesley. None but Bálkrishna Bháu, Appa Saheb's agent, gave him any help. They would not obey his orders, and did so much harm plundering and wasting the country that Colonel Wellesley had to order them to camp at a distance.[3] After his defeat at Manoli Dhundhia made towards Kittur. From near Kittur he passed through a woody country round by the sources of the Malprabha. His want of boats forced him to make this march which proved so long and so trying that before it was over numbers of his troops had deserted him. He passed through Khánápur on the 4th of August, and on the 7th he arrived at Sháhápur about a mile south of Belgaum. Colonel Wellesley, starting from Saundatti on the 3rd of August, arrived at Kittur on the 5th. While he stayed at Kittur till the 10th preparing boats for the passage of the Malprabha, Colonel Stevenson, with Lieutenant Colonel Bowser's detachment and the 4th Regiment of Native Cavalry, lightly equipped, was detached on Dhundhia's track, with the object of cutting off part of his baggage. This detachment afterwards crossed the Malprabha before Colonel Wellesley, and for some time menaced Dhundhia's rear. Colonel Stevenson's detachment was ordered not to push the rebel force closely until the troops under Colonel Wellesley's personal command were forward enough to support their operations. Dhundhia, continuing his march east along the Ghatprabha, tried to pass the Ghatprabha west of Gokák, but, under Colonel Wellesley's orders, was prevented by the Chikodi *desái* named Nariti Sirjari. Colonel Stevenson's detachment continued its march along the Ghatprabha, while Colonel Wellesley, having passed the Malprabha, moved along its left bank. To prevent Dhundhia crossing the river with any large body of troops by the fords of the Malprabha east of Manoli and near Bádámi, Lieutenant Colonel Capper's brigade, with the Marátha cavalry, was detached by the road to the right of the Malprabha, and was ordered to occupy the passes most likely to be fordable. On the 22nd of August, Lieutenant Colonel Capper, marching through the valley of Parasgad, assaulted the fort of Huli and carried it by escalade. Though after the action of Manoli on the 30th of July, on condition that they committed no aggression, Colonel Wellesley had given this garrison a *kaul* or promise of safety from attack, they had plundered the baggage of the dragoons as it passed the fort on the march to

[1] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, II. 81-84.
[2] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, II. 86, 200.
[3] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, II. 85.

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Colonel Wellesley, 1800.

Saundatti on the 1st of August. From Huli, Colonel Capper proceeded on the same day to Sungdal, another fort of great strength, about eight miles east of Huli, occupied by a petty chief in the interest of Dhundhia. As it was impossible to use ladders in storming this fort, the gateway was attacked and the outer gate carried. Inside of the outer gate the passage was too narrow for a gun carriage. The gun was taken off the carriage and borne to the inner gate under a heavy fire from the fort. This gallant enterprise was successfully accomplished by Sir John Sinclair and a detachment of the Coast and Bombay artillerymen, and the gate was speedily burst open. Hearing that the petty chief of Talur had guns, stores, and ammunition belonging to Dhundhia, Colonel Wellesley, on the 24th of August, despatched Lieutenant Colonel Montresor with a detachment to seize and destroy them. This service was satisfactorily performed. In Talur were found and destroyed one iron and four brass guns with excellent carriages, several tumbrils, a quantity of ammunition, and several Company's muskets with ammunition. The hill fort of Kathárigad was abandoned on Colonel Montresor's approach.[1] After evading pursuit through South Bijápur and the Nizám's country, on the 9th of September 1800, Dhundhia was killed at Kongal in the Nizám's territories. The parts of Belgaum wrested from Dhundhia were given to Appa Sáheb Patvardhan, from whom the Kolhápur chief had taken them between 1796 and 1799. During these wars the country suffered severely. Of eight bodies of troops manœuvring through it, Dhundhia's, the Chikodi *desái's*, Sindia's, the Kolhápur chief's, Bápu Gokhale's, Appa Sáheb's, and Colonel Wellesley's, all but Colonel Wellesley's lived on plunder.

Disorder, 1802.

Towards the end of 1801 war with Holkar called Sindia to the north, and Manoli and part of Chikodi came into the sole possession of the Nipáni *desái*, who held them on behalf of the Peshwa. In October 1802 Holkar drove the Peshwa Bájiráo from Poona and forced him to take refuge with the English. On the 31st of December 1802, under the treaty of Bassein, in return for cessions of territory the English undertook to restore the Peshwa to power in Poona and to guard his territories against attack. When, under the treaty of Bassein, the English undertook to keep order in the Peshwa's dominions, Belgaum was torn to pieces by the pretensions of seven independent authorities who held power in or near the borders of the district. Among these seven authorities were the Kolhápur chief who still held part of the district, which had been gained in his wars with the Patvardhans; Appa Sáheb Patvardhan who had as much of his estates restored to him by Colonel Wellesley as were wrested from Dhundhia Vágh: Sidojiráo Appa, *desái* of Nipáni, who maintained 300 horse and 400 foot; Sadáshiv Pandit who held the fort and country round Belgaum yielding a yearly revenue of £4000 (Rs. 40,000), and kept a force of 1000 horse and 2000 foot, supported by his estates in north Poona; Mallaserjya, *desái* of Kittur, who held

[1] Wellington's Supplementary Despatches, II. 156-57.

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Disorder, 1802.

the country round Kittur yielding a yearly revenue of £40,000 (Rs. 4,00,000), and kept a force of 1000 horse and 4000 foot, and was bound to pay the Peshwa a yearly tribute of £6000 to £7000 (Rs. 60,000-70,000). Among the servants of the Peshwa was Bápu Gokhale, who commanded a force of 2000 foot besides Pendháris, of whom he had at least 1000. He had also 1000 infantry with two or three guns. To pay these troops he held Gadag and Navalgund in Dhárwár, which yielded a yearly revenue of £50,000 (Rs. 5,00,000). He also made large sums from the plunder of the country near his districts. Amritráo, the adoptive brother of Bájiráo Peshwa, held Parasgad and Annágiri in Dhárwár, yielding a yearly revenue of £5000 (Rs. 50,000). Few of the actual estate holders had any legal hereditary right to their possessions which had generally been granted to their ancestors for military service. For years the Peshwa's government had been too weak to attempt to enforce the conditions of service on which the grants were originally made. The changes of fortune which befell the different estate-holders had been occasioned more by their disputes with each other, than by any exertion of authority on the part of the Poona government of which they were the nominal servants. The weakness of the Poona government, the troubles which shook the Marátha empire, and the example of others almost always led officers in command of troops and garrisons to make their authority permanent, and in some cases hereditary in their own family. The mode of paying them by orders on the revenues of the countries in which they were employed led to the complete establishment of their personal authority and the subversion of that of the Peshwa. It was also customary, as was done in the case of Parshurám Bháu, to assign the revenues of a district for a stated period to such estateholders as might have incurred an expense in the service of the Peshwa beyond the produce of their estates, and such temporary grants were often permanently annexed to their former possessions. The temporary allotment of a country to an estate-holder or the assignment of revenue to an officer of government for the payment of his troops usually ended in the independent establishment of the estate-holder or officer in the assigned country, or in a ruinous contest for the recovery of the state right. This system made every Marátha province a scene of petty warfare and enabled the subjects of the state to assume rights to which they had no other claim than usurpation and violence.[1]

General Wellesley's March, 1803.

According to the terms of the treaty of Bassein (31st December 1802) Major General Wellesley, who after Dhundhia's death had returned to Seringapatam, marched through the district on his way to Poona to reinstate Bájiráo as Peshwa. General Wellesley passed across Belgaum along the old road from Dhárwár by Sangoli, Nesargi, Nagar-Manoli, and Yedur. In their march through the Marátha territories the British troops were everywhere received as friends, and almost all the chiefs near their line of march joined their forces and accompanied the British army to

[1] Notes on the Transactions in the Marátha Empire (1804), 85.

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General Wellesley's March, 1803.

Poona. The friendliness of the estate-holders or *jágirdárs* and of the people was chiefly due to the fame which the British arms had won in General Wellesley's campaign against Dhundhia Vágh in 1800, and to the care and skill with which General Wellesley arranged for the supplies of his troops to the gain instead of to the loss of the people through whose country his route lay. This friendly feeling helped the English army without loss or distress to perform this long march in the trying month of April, in a season of severe famine.[1] Among the estate-holders who aided the British force, not from any loyal spirit to the Peshwa but from former knowledge of General Wellesley, were the *desái* of Nipáni who joined the British force at Nesargi with 300 horse and 100 infantry, and the *desái* of Kittur, who contributed 100 horse and 100 infantry to act with the British force. The Kittur *desái* also consented to give a small fort at Sangoli to serve as a post to keep up communications and guard the hospital and boats stationed there. The Kittur contingent, though furnished in a loyal spirit, was of little service. They had to receive constant advances to keep them from starving.[2] While the Nipáni *desái* was absent in Poona, the Kolhápur chief harassed his districts and persuaded the Talur *desái* Chandrappa to attack Manoli. Chandrappa besieged Manoli for some days and wasted the Nipáni country until General Wellesley sent Major General Campbell to guard Nipáni. Manoli was relieved, and as the Talur *desái* refused to come to terms and fled to Kolhápur, his fort at Talur was handed to the Nipáni *desái*.

Nipáni, 1804-1816.

In reward for his loyalty in joining the British army the Kittur *desái* escaped the intended loss of his estates, and in March 1804 the Nipáni *desái* received the title of *sarlashkar* and grants for lands in military service or *fauj saranjám* valued at £54,112 (Rs. 5,41,120) a year, besides the Manoli district and the petty division or *pargana* of Hukeri. The Kolhápur chief resisted the Nipáni claims to Manoli, and the two went to war. The war lasted six years (1804-1809). In 1808 the Nipáni *desái* completely defeated Kolhápur. In 1809, through the Peshwa's intercession, peace was concluded, by which, besides the disputed districts to be held on behalf of the Peshwa, the Nipáni *desái* received a Kolhápur princess in marriage.[3] In 1809 the Kittur *desái* Mallaserjya (1782-1816), who had been taken to Poona after the Peshwa's pilgrimage to Belári in 1805, entered into an agreement by which he promised to pay the Peshwa a yearly tribute of £17,500 (Rs. 1,75,000). In return for this agreement he received grants for his estates and the title of *pratápráo*. In commemoration of his title, near Nandgad town, the *desái* built a fort and called it Pratápgad.[4] In spite of his marriage with a daughter of the house, the Nipáni *desái* did not long remain at peace with Kolhápur. In 1811 he defeated the Kolhápur chief, marched on Kolhápur, and besieged it. The Honourable Mounstuart Elphinstone, who was Resident at Poona, interfered, and, on the 1st of October 1812, a treaty

[1] Notes on the Transactions in the Marátha Empire (1804), 11.
[2] Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 196. [3] Bom. Gov. Sel. VIII. 512.
[4] Stokes' Belgaum, 71.

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Nipáni, 1804-1816.

was concluded by which the Kolhápur chief gave up all claim to Chikodi and Manoli. In 1813 the Nipáni *desái* was summoned by Bájiráo to Poona. He went but refused to comply with certain claims made by the Peshwa or to give up territory belonging to Kolhápur. The British authorities interposed, but Bájiráo artfully contrived to persuade the *desái* to trust to his lenience and to resist his demands. By this insidious conduct the *desái* was led to forfeit one-fourth of his estates to the Peshwa.[1] At the close of the rainy season of 1816 a detachment of the Poona subsidiary force was sent to enforce the forfeiture. The duty was not completed till the middle of December and then proved fruitless, for no sooner had the detachment returned to Poona, than the *desái* retook his lost possessions.[2]

The Peshwa's Overthrow, 1817.

The Peshwa's end was drawing near. His government of the Bombay Karnátak was hateful to the people. His revenue farmers ruined the small landholders who formed the bulk of the people. They and the traders were anxious to drive out the Marátha estateholders and their servants, because they ruined trade by arbitrary exactions, and often plundered traders of their whole property.[3] While they were hateful to the people the estateholders were not liked by the Peshwa, and they in turn hated their overlord. When the crisis came, the people volunteered, and, on behalf of the British, drove the Peshwa's officers out of the country. Most of the officers in charge of forts and districts stood by the Peshwa. Of the estateholders, a few, especially Appa Sáheb of Nipáni, served him but without will or spirit. The rest, among them the Patvardhans and the Kittur *desái*, were active in helping the English. In 1817, according to the terms of the treaty of Poona (13th June), the Peshwa, among other districts, ceded Dhárwár and Kushgal to the English. As, in the event of a rupture with the Peshwa, the early occupation of these lands was of great importance to the advance of an English army from the south Colonel Thomas Munro immediately took possession of Dhárwár fort. On the 5th of November the Peshwa's fate was sealed at the battle of Kirkee. After the battle, General Munro, in spite of the slender means at his disposal, succeeded in bringing the whole of Dhárwár and South Bijápur under the English.[4] On the 26th of February 1818 he reduced Bádámi and Bágalkot, and pressed up the right bank of the Ghatprabha to overrun the whole Marátha lands to the south of the Ghatprabha, and then be free to carry his arms north. The breakdown of some gun-carriages on the 26th delayed him, so that he did not reach Gokák till the 7th of March. On the 8th he crossed the Ghatprabha, and marching two days up the left bank recrossed to Ghodgeri, and, on the 11th, camped at the headquarter town of

[1] Grant Duff's Maráthás, 621. [2] Stokes' Belgaum, 72.
[3] Gleig's Life of Munro, I. 412.
[4] The troops under General Munro were three troops of the 22nd Light Dragoons, three artillerymen, eleven companies of native infantry, four companies of Maisur infantry, and four companies of Pioneers. His ordnance included one eight-inch mortar, one three and a half inch howitzer, two iron eighteen-pounders, two iron twelve-pounders, and four brass twelve-pounders. Stokes' Belgaum, 74.

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The Peshwa's Overthrow.
*Siege of Belgaum, 1818.*

Pádsháp̄ur which forthwith surrendered. Judging it unsafe to le any fort in his rear in the enemy's hands, General Munro march towards Belgaum which was then held on behalf of the Peshw He arrived before Belgaum on the 20th of March 1818 and too possession of the town or *petha* without delay, in order, befo further operations, to gain cover as near to the fort as possibl The fort was found in perfect repair. It had a broad and deep wet ditch, was surrounded by an open space or esplanade six hundred yards broad, and was garrisoned by 1600 men. The Pioneers were set to work to prepare a battery of three twelve-pounders at a mosque opposite the north face of the fort. To favour their progress, a five and a half inch mortar and a six-pounder opened from the town. On the 21st the battery opened within eight hundred yards of the fort, and was answered by five guns which were nearly silenced in the course of the following day. On the night of the 22nd an enfilading or raking battery of two guns was completed in the town and swept the north face and the gateway. A gun opened on the enfilading battery from a small tower or cavalier within the works, and the fire of the twelve-pounder battery was returned from the curtain to the left of the gate. These efforts of the besieged were partly defeated on the 24th when the approach was begun and carried one hundred and forty yards. Next day the enemy fired nothing but gingals or wall muskets and the approach advanced 120 yards. On the 26th the garrison again showed artillery, and opened from the flag staff battery, which had been nearly destroyed by the previous fire of the twelve-pounders. They likewise produced a new gun on the right of the gate, but could not stop the approach which was carried forward 100 yards through very hard ground. On the 27th the mortar was moved from the enfilading to the twelve-pounder battery and threw shells all the night, while an advance of 100 yards more was made. This was prolonged 120 yards next day, the enemy's fire was reduced to two guns. On the 30th 120 yards more were added. On the 31st the magazine in the mosque belonging to the twelve-pounder battery blew up, and the garrison instantly sallied to take advantage of the confusion which they supposed the explosion must have caused. When within 100 yards, the battery guard under Lieutenant Walker of the 2nd Battalion of the 4th Regiment, and the artillery detail under Lieutenant Lewis, advanced to meet them, and, under a heavy fire of guns and small arms from the walls, drove them back into the fort. Colonel Newall, who saw this act of gallantry, praised with the two officers mentioned, the marked bravery of Lieutenant Macky, of His Majesty's 53rd Regiment, who, unable to join the detachment of his corps with Brigadier-General Pritzler, took his tour of general duty in Brigadier-General Munro's force. After the explosion, the repair of the twelve-pounder battery occupied the 1st of April during which an eight-inch mortar was opened, the five and a half inch mortar was taken back to the enfilading battery, and the approach was carried fifty yards further. The approach was now so well advanced that, within 550 yards of the wall, a breaching battery for two eighteen pounders was begun and finished on the 2nd. On the morning of the 3rd of April it opened on the left of the gateway with great effect.

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The garrison had still two guns able to fire on the side of the attack; and, as they considerably annoyed the breaching battery, to silence them two twelve-pounders were brought into battery 100 yards to the left. The enemy's guns were silenced on the 4th, when a large part of the outer wall to the left of the gate, and some of the inner wall, were brought down. Next day the destruction was still more rapid. All the batteries continued firing and shells were thrown all night long. Before daylight on the 6th a twelve-pounder was got within 150 yards of the gate and the firing was kept up with as great vigour as on the 5th. The twelve-pounder on the advanced battery opened on the 7th, but burst after firing fifteen rounds. The breach of the curtain was widened, but the garrison still kept up a smart fire. On the 8th the original twelve-pounder battery was abandoned, and two of its iron guns were brought into the battery near the gate. On the 9th they opened with excellent effect on the curtain to the right, where the enemy's gingals and matchlockmen had previously found good cover, and made a practicable breach in the outer wall. Seeing this breach the commandant sent out to propose terms, and, as the terms were not agreed to, on the morning of the 10th the batteries continued to fire till the commandant surrendered at discretion. On the same day (10th April) a detachment of British troops took possession of the outer gateway, and on the 11th, the Pioneers were employed in opening both entrances, as they were built up within and were strongly barricaded. On the 12th of April the garrison marched out. They acknowledged to have had twenty killed and fifty wounded during the siege; the British loss was twenty-three. The fall of this important fort, in spite of the want of ordinary means, was honourable to the energy and zeal of the besiegers. The exertions of the Artillery and the men of the 22nd Dragoons, serving in the batteries, were unremitting, and the labours of the Pioneers were equally meritorious in constructing, besides several batteries, an approach 750 yards long through extremely hard ground. General Munro took the field without any staff. He was even without an engineer, though this want was supplied by the judgment and energy of Colonel Newall, the second in command, who personally directed every operation. The ordnance found in the fort included thirty-six pieces, mostly of large calibre, and sixty gingals and small brass guns. The place was well supplied with stores. It was a matter of congratulation that the garrison surrendered without further opposition. The three eighteen-pounders were so worn at the vent, that three fingers might be introduced into them, and they had consequently lost considerably in power. The walls of the fort were everywhere solid and massive, and being more than a mile and a half round, gave the garrison abundant room to avoid shells. After the capture of the fort the force had to halt at Belgaum till the 17th, to organize means for future operations and to put the results of the capture on a firm basis.[1] Leaving a company of the 2nd Battalion of the 9th Regiment in possession of the fort, General Munro returned towards the Ghatprabha, which, for the third time,

[1] Blacker's Marátha War, 292-94.

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he crossed on the 21st. Next day he reached Nagar-Manoli about twenty miles south of Chikodi, where he was joined by General Pritzler with the main body of the reserve. From Nagar-Manoli he marched to Sholápur, and took the fort of Sholápur on the 14th of May (1818).

The Nipáni Chief, 1818.

The fall of Belgaum completed the conquest of the Peshwa's territory south of the Krishna. Except the Nipáni *desái* none of the estateholders had resisted and no more fighting remained. The Kittur *desái* had given great help by furnishing materials during the siege of Belgaum. Even the *desái* of Nipáni, though he joined the Peshwa, never acted cordially against the British troops, and on the 7th of May, with the Peshwa's brother Chimnáji Appa, he gave himself up to Captain Davis of the Nizám's Reformed Horse.[1] As a punishment for his adherence to the Peshwa and for the slowness of his submission to the English, the Nipáni *desái* was deprived of Manoli and Chikodi, except the villages of Nipáni, Sirgat, and Belkur, which were made over to the Kolhápur chief in return for his hearty co-operation with the British. The Nipáni *desái* was greatly dissatisfied with this arrangement and was ready to join any combination against the English which he thought likely to be successful. He at first hesitated to give up the two districts and endeavoured to negotiate. General Munro, who was at Yedur on the 31st of May on his way back from Sholápur, marched towards Nipáni, intending to lay siege to the fort in case the *desái* delayed to give up the districts. This move and the dissatisfaction of his own people compelled the *desái* to yield as soon as the army arrived before Nipáni. His people's dislike to the Nipáni *desái* was the result of a long course of cruelty and ill-treatment. From the beginning of his career he had been in the practice of extracting money by throwing into prison every rich man in his own lands, and in any other villages over which he could exercise power. He used also to seize and keep in confinement any young women of the neighbourhood who were of unusual beauty. When General Munro came to Nipáni, many rich and well-to-do people had been in prison for ten or twelve years; and it was said that every year many died from cruel treatment. General Munro heard only of a few prisoners, and these he ordered to be released. After leaving the place he learned that about 300 were still in confinement. He wrote to the *desái* to release them, and some were set at liberty; but, as many were still kept in confinement, General Munro directed that some of the *desái's* villages on the south bank of the Krishna should not be restored until all were released. Strange stories are still current of the *desái's* cruelty. His palace at Nipáni is built on the edge of a deep lake. High up overhanging the water a narrow open stone ledge or balcony stands out from the palace wall. Along the outer edge of this balcony the *desái* was fond of arranging a row of young women. When they were ready he used to pass inside of the row of trembling girls, and suddenly thrusting out his hand hurl one off the ledge and watch her dying struggles in the deep water below. These acts of cruelty so enraged his people that when General Munro was near Nipáni the heads of

*His Cruelty.*

[1] Bombay Courier, 16th May 1818.

most of the *desái's* villages asked him to let them pass to the English. They wanted no help. All they asked was leave to drive out the *desái's* garrisons, and the promise that they would not be allowed to pass back under the *desái*.[1] In accordance with his arrangement with the people General Munro for two years held parts of Athni belonging to the Nipáni *desái*. In part of Parasgad which had lately been resumed by the Peshwa, when the people submitted to General Munro, they made a special stipulation that they were not to be again placed under the *desái*. As during the war most of the estateholders had sided with the English, in 1818, when the country came to be settled, they were continued in their estates. The Patvardhans held Gokák and parts of Athni, and had large possessions in Pádshápur. The Kittur *desái*, whose lands were raised to the position of an independent state or *svasthán*, held Sampgaon and the greater part of Bidi. The Khánápur district was resumed as he held it to pay for a body of troops which he was no longer required to keep. As Chikodi and Manoli were made over to Kolhápur, all that remained to the English as *khálsát* or state land was Khánápur, and parts of Pádshápur and Parasgad. On General Munro's recommendation, Mr. Chaplin, Collector of Belári, was appointed, under Mr. Elphinstone, Principal Collector of the Marátha Country south of the Krishna, and Political Agent with the Kolhápur chief and the Southern Marátha Jágirdárs. On the 1st of November 1819, when Mr. Elphinstone became Governor of Bombay, Mr. Chaplin succeeded him as Commissioner of the conquered country.

*Kittur Rising, 1824.*

Since it has come into the hands of the English the peace of the district has been more than once broken. Forfeitures caused by these disturbances and by the misrule of estateholders have led to a large accession to Government territory in the Bombay Karnátak. In 1822 Shivlinga Rudra the Kittur *desái*, who sheltered bands of robbers in his territory to the annoyance of his neighbours, was severely rebuked by Government. On the 12th of September 1824, a servant of the Kittur *desái* came to Mr. Thackeray, the principal Collector at Dhárwár, to bring word that his master was dying, and to deliver a letter purporting to be from his master announcing the adoption of a son. The letter was dated the 10th of July, but it was stated that the child had not been adopted till the day the letter was received. The Civil Surgeon was at once sent to Kittur. He found the *desái* dead, and from the appearance of the body judged that he had been dead several hours, probably before the messenger had left Kittur for Dhárwár. The circumstances connected with the alleged adoption seemed to Mr. Thackeray most suspicious. Though he knew that he could not adopt without leave, the *desái* had never applied for leave to adopt. When Mr. Thackeray had seen him a few months before, though he was very ill and had spoken freely of his affairs, he never expressed any wish to adopt. The signature to the letter was scarcely legible and the characters were different from the *desái's* usual handwriting, which was remarkably good and clear. Mr. Thackeray came to the conclusion that if the adoption had taken

[1] Gleig's Life of Munro, II. 269.

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*Kittur Rising, 1824.*

place it did not take place till the *desái* was either dead or senseless. In reporting these circumstances to Government, Mr. Thackeray pointed out that the *desái's* family included his wife, a girl of eleven, his stepmother, and the young widow of his brother who had died two years before. The remaining relations, like the child who was said to have been adopted, belonged to branches so remote that their descent from the common ancestor could not be traced. Mr. Thackeray reported that he had gone to Kittur to inquire into the alleged adoption, and to keep order until the decision of Government should be known. As, even if the estate did not lapse to Government there must be a long minority, he proposed to conduct the administration by means of two managers one on the part of Government and the other on the part of the *desái* family. On the receipt of Mr. Thackeray's report he was told to make known to the *desái's* family that the British Government did not recognise the adoption. Mr. Thackeray was desired to take charge of the state and to make an inquiry into the circumstances of the adoption. At the same time Government declared that if inquiry showed that the boy who was said to have been adopted was a descendant of the *desái* who held the country before Tipu's conquest, the boy would be allowed to succeed. On the other hand if it appeared that the claimant was neither a descendant of the ancient *desái* nor a near connection of the late *desái* by the female line, the adoption was to be disallowed. Mr. Thackeray's inquiries showed that the *desái* died on the night of the 11th instead of on the 12th of September; that he had made no adoption; and that after his death Konur Mullapa, his manager and other attendants invested the child with the insignia of *desái*. This was acknowledged by the parties concerned. They also confessed that they had put a pen in the dead man's hands, and so written his signature to the letter dated the 10th of July which was sent to Mr. Thackeray. Because of his share in these frauds, and also because he was concerned in the removal of treasure and jewels, Konur Mallappa, who had been appointed manager on the part of Government, was removed. In reporting these proceedings Mr. Thackeray wrote: 'All is quiet. I anticipate no disorder, and I expect to be able to manage the country without military assistance.' He afterwards submitted the result of his inquiries into the family pedigree, which showed that no descendant of the ancient *desái*, and no near connection of the late *desái* by the female line was alive. While these reports were under consideration Government were shocked by the news of a rising at Kittur which had resulted in the death of the Political Agent and other officers. On the 21st of October, Mr. Thackeray, finding that a number of the late *desái's* treasury guards were commanded by a thief, determined to place a guard of Government sepoys at each gateway. He also required the headmen to give a bond rendering themselves responsible for the safety of the treasury. The headmen refused without the orders of Chinavva, the late *desái's* stepmother, who had lately claimed the management of the state. Mr. Thackeray wished to call on the ladies to explain matters, but they refused to see him that day, promising to see him on the day after. On the 22nd they still refused to see him, and none of the leading men would accompany him to their house.

As Mr. Thackeray heard that the militia and messengers were coming in from the villages round he asked Captain Black, the commander of a troop of gunners or *golandáz*, who had accompanied him, to bring two guns into the fort and post them at the gateways. On the morning of the 23rd, when the artillery officer went to the fort to change guard, he found the outer gate locked, and the inner fort full of armed men, and was refused admittance. Mr. Thackeray sent several messages, and, as they were not attended to, he ordered up the two other guns, and declared that if the gate was not opened in twenty minutes he would blow it open. At the end of the twenty minutes, Captain Black, Captain Sewell, and Lieutenant Dighton, of the gunners or *golandáz* were preparing to blow open the gates when a sally was made by the garrison. The guns were seized and the officers and all with them were cut down. Mr. Thackeray rode up and tried to restore order but fell by a shot and his body was cut to pieces. The rest of the British detachment was attacked and cut up, and Messrs. Stevenson and Elliot, assistants to the Political Agent, who had hid themselves in a house, were made prisoners with some native officials and sepoys. Gursiddappa, the leader in these proceedings, and Chinavva the late *desái's* stepmother had stirred up the spirit that led to this murderous onslaught. When they found what had happened they were not a little alarmed and anxiously protected the European prisoners. As the portion of the Doab Field Force, which was stationed in Belgaum was too weak to act against so strong a fort as Kittur, which was said to be garrisoned by some 5000 desperate men, troops were rapidly collected from all quarters. A proclamation was issued offering a free pardon to all who would surrender before a fixed date, except Gursiddappa, and even Gursiddappa was promised his life, if he forthwith surrendered. The leading men and the troops in Kittur were warned that they should be held responsible for the safety of the prisoners. Meantime the people of Kittur addressed several letters to Government complaining of Mr. Thackeray's acts and demanding that the independence of the state should be respected. They also endeavoured to enlist on their side the Chief of Kolhápur. On the 30th of November Kittur fort was invested and Mr. Chaplin the Commissioner in the Deccan who had hurried to the spot called on the insurgents to surrender. They demanded more favourable terms before releasing the prisoners but were referred to the proclamation. On the morning of the 2nd of December the prisoners were released, but, as the fort was not surrendered, it was attacked on the third and an advanced fortified post was carried. On this post a battery was raised which next day effected a practical breach and the garrison surrendered at discretion. The troops engaged on this occasion were the 1st Bombay European Regiment and two companies of Her Majesty's 46th Foot, a battery of Horse and a company of Foot Artillery, the 4th and 8th Madras Light Cavalry, the 23rd Madras Native Infantry and the 3rd and 6th Regiments of Bombay Native Infantry, the whole under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Deacon, C.B. The casualties were three killed and twenty-five wounded. Among the killed were Mr. Munro, the Sub-Collector of Sholápur, who had come to the scene of action after Mr. Thackeray's

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*Kittur Lapsed, 1824.*

death and was mortally wounded in the attack on the advanced post. The Kittur territory thus lapsed to the British Government. It was partitioned into three sub-divisions, Kittur Sampgaon and Bidi, containing in all 286 villages and seventy-two hamlets. The revenue for the year immediately after the lapse (1825) amounted to £33,364 14*s.* (Rs. 3,33,647) which in three years increased by upwards of £2200 (Rs. 22,000). This revenue was exclusive of lands of the yearly value of £2004 (Rs. 20,040) which were held by servants of the late *desáis*, and other lands of the yearly value of £2092 12*s.* (Rs. 20,926) which were held by militia or *shetsandis*. Liberal provision was made for the ladies of the *desái's* family who were kept under watch in Bail-Hongal fort.[1]

*Second Kittur Rising, 1829.*

In 1827 Báva Sáheb the Kolhápur Chief, whose turbulence was a perpetual source of annoyance, was deprived of Chikodi and Manoli on the ground that he had shown a disregard for the friendship of the British Government and had repeatedly infringed the rights of the landholders of British villages. Besides land yielding a yearly revenue of £1000 (Rs. 10,000) the chief was compelled to cede Akkivát in Chikodi in consequence of the number of robberies committed by its inhabitants on land proprietors and others under British protection and because it was a general resort of robbers.[2] In 1829 a widespread rising took place at Kittur. This rising was headed by one Ráyappa a village watchman of Sangoli, a retainer of the Kittur *desái*, who had received a pardon for his share in the 1824 outbreak. Rendered desperate by the confiscation of his service land and exasperated by a quarrel with the clerk of his village, Ráyappa gathered many disaffected people round him, and, taking the boy who was alleged to have been adopted by the late *desái*, attempted to raise a revolt with the object of restoring Kittur independence. The *desáis* of Kittur had been very popular especially with the poorer classes of their people. Early in 1829, Ráyappa who had then about a hundred men, began by burning the mámlatdár's office at Bidi. Afterwards his followers increased to a thousand and they plundered and burned many other villages in Bidi, now Khánápur. They spent their days in the Balagunda and Handi Badagnáth hills in the south corner of the district and at night divided into plundering parties. Ráyappa once came to Kanabaragi about four miles north of Belgaum in the hope of seizing Belgaum fort by a rush at the time of changing guard, but he made no actual attempt to carry out this plan. Krishnaráo the mámlatdár of Sampgaon was told to arrest Ráyappa. He placed the treasure £5000 (Rs. 50,000) on the top of the mosque in Sampgaon, and, leaving a guard of peons, started for Bidi. According to the popular account it was against Krishnaráo that the revolt was raised, and it was by Krishnaráo's exertions that the revolt was quelled. It was hoped that the rising might be put down without military force. But when the Kittur militia refused to serve and the disorder continued to spread, the help of strong detachments became necessary. The regular troops were not well

[1] Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 199-203; Sir T. Colebrook's Life of Mountstuart Elphinstone, II. 167-168. Welsh's Military Reminiscences, II. 298-299.
[2] Stokes' Belgaum, 82.

suited for pursuing bands of robbers through close and difficult country. Krishnaráo, after scouring the forests in vain, came from Bidi to Mugutkhán Hubli sixteen miles south-east of Belgaum with a large body of militia and some horse. He learned that Ráyappa had avoided him, and had passed by a little known path through Kádaroli to Sampgaon where he had burned the mámlatdár's office and destroyed the records. Krishnaráo hurried forward and overtook Ráyappa's band at the little pond to the north of Sampgaon. He had ten horsemen with him, and succeeded in killing four of the rebels. The rest retired to Suttagatti near which they divided into two large bands, one of which returned with Ráyappa to Kittur hill by Sangoli, while the other plundered and burned Marikatti. Krishnaráo attacked the Marikatti band on Nesaragi hill, and dispersed it, killing ten or twenty, and taking about a hundred prisoners. At this time it was deemed advisable to remove to Dhárwár Iravva, the late *desái's* widow who was living at Bail Hongal. This nearly excited another rising; a thousand men gathered at Anegol to resist her removal. On receiving a promise of pardon most of them submitted and the rest joined Ráyappa. Iravva died at Dhárwár in July; it was supposed by poison taken either by herself or administered to her. Soon after this the insurrection was quelled. Krishnaráo the mámlatdár, discovered that Lingana Gauda of Khudánpur, had wished his own son to be adopted on the death of the late *desái*, and resented the refusal with which his proposal was met. This man was chosen as a fit instrument to betray Ráyappa. Men were sent to join the rebels and suggest that they should call in Lingana, who would bring three hundred men. Ráyappa took the bait and wrote to Lingana Gauda to ask him to join. The mámlatdár sent Lingana Gauda with a body of men; and, as he was timid and weak, Yenkana Gauda of Neginahál who was bold and courageous, was sent with him to support him. They joined Ráyappa and continued with him for a fortnight plundering. One day, when Ráyappa had laid aside his arms and was bathing, Lakkappa, a watchman of Neginahál, rushed on him and clasped him round the body; another secured his weapons, and the rest overpowered him, bound him hand and foot on a stretcher, and carried him in triumph to Dhárwár. He was condemned to be hanged at Nandgad, the scene of his chief robbery. As he passed along the road to the gallows he pointed out a spot for his burial, stating that a great tree would spring from his body. He was buried in the spot he had chosen and a magnificent banian close to the road near Nandgad is shown as the tree which grew from Ráyappa's grave. Under the shade of this tree a temple has been built, to which people in want of children money or health come from great distances. Husbandmen, too, on their way to the Nandgad market stop to promise Ráyappa an offering if their grain sells well. Ráyappa's outbreak lasted about four months. His betrayers were rewarded with gifts of land; Lingana was presented with Kaloli near Kittur and Yenkana Gauda with a village in Dhárwár.

On the 17th of March 1830 under Regulation VII. of that year, the Government of Bombay brought under the regulations the

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territories of the Bombay Karnátak which had been acquired either by conquest from the Peshwa or by treaty and agreement from other states. The territories were formed into the district of Dhárwár.

*Nipáni, 1831.*

In 1831 Appa Sáheb of Nipáni, whom age and a feeling of the power of Government had kept quiet if not well disposed, endeavoured to impose a child on Government as his heir.[1] It was discovered that one of his wives Táibái had been taken to a house in Nipáni, on the pretence that she was about to bear a child. A widow, who expected soon to be delivered, was also taken to the house; and when the child was born, he was placed in Táibái's arms, and said to be her offspring. The widow was murdered. Information of this intrigue and crime was given by the owner of the house in which it took place, and he soon after died with suspicious suddenness. His story was confirmed by the discovery of the widow's body. In consideration of the Nipáni chief's age and of his services to the British in 1800 and 1803, Government did not immediately confiscate his military grant or *sáranjám* lands. They determined to punish the *desái* by declaring that his military estates were to lapse on his death, and that no son of his body or of his adoption should be recognized as heir to them.

*Belgaum Collectorate, 1836.*

On the 28th of April 1836 the Collectorate of Dhárwár was divided into two Collectorates a northern and a southern. On the recommendation of Mr. Dunlop who was then acting principal Collector of Dhárwár, the Belgaum Collectorate was made to consist of ten sub-divisions, Parasgad, Sampgaon, Pádsháp̄ur, Chikodi, Bágalkot, Indi, Muddebihál, Hungund, Bádámi, and Bidi. Mr. Ravenscroft the first Assistant Collector took charge of the Belgaum Collectorate on the 3rd of May 1836. Nearly two years passed before Government agreed to allow the civil headquarters to be fixed at Belgaum. Ankalgi, Gokák, Murgod, and Manoli were all proposed, and at one time Gokák was almost determined on. Mr. Dunlop, the Collector, in a series of letters, pointed out the disadvantages likely to arise from the headquarters being fixed at any other station than Belgaum, and at length persuaded Government to adopt his views. The order fixing Belgaum as the civil headquarters is dated the 9th of March 1838. The Collector was also Political Agent. A first assistant, with enlarged powers, was stationed permanently at Kaládgi. Soon after the formation of the Belgaum Collectorate the sub-divisions of Indi and Muddebihál were handed to the new Collectorate of Sholápur.

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1 The Nipáni *desái* seems always to have been noted for his discontent and his cruelty. In 1819 Mr. Elphinstone represented him as turbulent and discontented by the loss of Chikodi and Manoli, but conscious of his own weakness. In 1822, from his indifference, Mr. Chaplin suspected him of secretly hoping to profit by the unsettled state of Kolhápur. In 1823 Mr. Elphinstone found him the only discontented estateholder in the Bombay Karnátak. He was cruel and furious in passion, harsh and unrelenting in the management of his estate, and deaf to the remonstrances of his people. In 1826 for neglect of duty he flogged two grooms so severely that one of them died on the spot and the life of the other was long despaired of. In spite of these faults, when meeting Europeans, he was frank and gentlemanlike, good-humoured and cordial. Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII. 215. Welsh's Military Reminiscences, II. 283, 334.

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Government had decided to deny the privilege of adoption to certain estateholders, as it was considered desirable to reduce the area of alienated land as much as possible. One of the first estates which lapsed in consequence of this decision was the military estate of Chinchani. Govindráo the proprietor belonged to the Tásgaon branch of the Patvardhan family. He died on the 31st of December 1836 and his land passed to Government. It included the sub-divisions of Gokák and several separate villages. This addition to Belgaum was managed in the Political Department until 1839, when by Act VIII. it was brought under the Acts and Regulations. Unlike other Patvardhan lands, which were well managed and prosperous, when Gokák lapsed it was impoverished and was a famous resort of thieves. The Nipáni *desái* had for some time been in failing health. He was very infirm and subject to fits, under which, for a time, he used completely to lose his senses. On the 28th of June 1839 he died, having previously adopted Morárráo, son of his half-brother Raghunáthráo, as heir to his *deshkat* or civil estates which were estimated to be worth £1500 (Rs. 15,000) a year. The military or *saranjám* estate was resumed and divided among Belgaum, Dhárwár, and Sholápur. The chief parts which fell to Belgaum were the divisions of Athni and Honvád, and the flourishing town of Nipáni. These acquisitions were managed by the Political Agent, until, under Act VI. of 1842 they were brought under the Acts and Regulations. The year after the death of the Nipáni *desái* his six widows began to quarrel. The eldest had charge of the heir and the five others kept up continued complaints against her. She died in the end of 1840, and the management passed to the next eldest widow. Two of the remaining ladies induced Raghunáthráo, the late *desái's* half-brother, to seize his son whom the late *desái* had adopted, and with the aid of 300 Arabs to take possession of the fort and set the authorities at defiance. The military had to be called in before the fort submitted. It was attacked on the 20th of February 1841 and surrendered on the following day. The Arab ringleaders were punished with imprisonment; and all who had joined in the insurrection forfeited their pensions. The fort was dismantled at the expense of the *desái*, who had also to pay the cost of the expedition. On the 4th of May 1842, Gopálráo, the representative of a divided branch of the Miraj family of Patvardhans, died without an heir, and his estate lapsed to Government. In it were nine villages now in Belgaum, of which Ainápur on the Krishna is the largest. The estate was brought under the Acts and Regulations by Act III. of 1863.

*Chinchani Lapsed, 1836.*

*Nipáni Lapsed, 1840.*

The years 1844 and 1845 are memorable for the serious risings in Kolhápur and Sávantvádi, which from their close neighbourhood caused uneasiness and disturbance within Belgaum limits. In 1843 great abuse and mismanagement in Kolhápur led Government to appoint Dáji Krishna Pandit as minister to improve the administration. His reforms aroused the alarm of the garrison or *gadakaris* of Sámángad about fifteen miles west of Hukeri and of Budhargad in Kolhápur, who shut the gates of their forts and defied Government. A force of 1200 men, with four mortars and two nine-

*Kolhápur Rising, 1844.*

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pounders, moved from Belgaum, and arrived before Sámángad on the 19th of September. The place was not taken until the 13th of October, after battering guns had been brought from Belgaum and a breach made. Meanwhile the insurrection spread and developed into a rising of the Kolhápur people against the British power. On the 10th of October the garrison of Budhargad plundered the division of Chikodi and robbed the mámlatdár's treasury. This insurrection was not got under till December, and meanwhile a similar outbreak had taken place in Sávantvádi. The Sávantvádi rising began with the garrison of Manohar about thirty-five miles north-west of Belgaum on the 10th of October. In a short time outrages became general, and the movement grew still more formidable when Phond Sávant, a man of note, joined the insurgents. In 1828 and 1832 Phond had headed outbreaks against the Sar Desái of Vádi. In 1838 he had been admitted to an amnesty and had since lived in the Vádi state, where he was treated with unusual generosity and kindness. In November 1844, with his eight sons, he openly espoused the cause of the rebels, and persuaded Anna Sáheb, the eldest son of the Sar Desái, a boy of sixteen, to escape from Vádi and lend the cause the support of his name. This insurrection and the Kolhápur disturbances covered the country round with confusion and alarm. There was an organized conspiracy to seize the forts of Dhárwár and Belgaum and excite a rebellion against the British throughout the Bombay Karnátak. To prevent insurgents crossing into Belgaum a large body of militia were raised and posted in various strong positions along the Sahyádris, and parties of regular troops were distributed at Bidi, Kittur, Hubli, Talevádi, Chikodi, and Patna. Notwithstanding these precautions Belgaum did not escape disturbance. On the night of the 30th of December two or three hundred rebels attacked and plundered the custom station at Párvád, and on the 2nd of January the Kumkumbi custom-house was plundered. Chandgad and Párgad were threatened, but a timely reinforcement of militia saved them. A large number of insurgents met below Talevádi, but fear of the garrison prevented an attack on the custom-house. In Bidi alone about 800 militia were employed. Bhimgad was occupied, and as, on the night of the 11th of January, Sávarda two or three miles west of Patna was attacked by a band of rebels, a party of regulars was sent from Belgaum to guard Patna. Alarm and danger continued until the forts of Manohar and Mansantosh in Sávantvádi had been taken and the rebels scattered. In February 1845 Colonel, afterwards Sir James, Outram drove one body of rebels from the forest below the Rám pass and most of the leaders, among them Phond Sávant and his sons, took refuge in Goa. The government of Goa declined to surrender them, choosing to regard them as political refugees. By March 1845 the country near the Sahyádris was reported quiet.

*Sávantvádi Rising, 1844.*

While the Kolhápur rebellion was engaging the attention of Government, Shivlingáppa, the feigned adopted son of the Kittur *desái*, attempted to raise a revolt in Sampgaon and Bidi. A treasonable correspondence was discovered between him and the *desái* of Chachdi about twenty-five miles east of Belgaum. Sums of

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money were distributed through the districts, and many servants of the late *desái* promised aid. It was intended to ask help from the mercenary Arabs of the Nizám's territories, and applications were made to men in Kolhápur and Goa. The plot was discovered partly by the aid of the Vontamuri *desái*, Shivlingáppa's father-in-law. Sufficient legal evidence to secure conviction could not be obtained and the conspirators escaped punishment. Shivlingáppa spent the rest of his life dependent on the bounty of the Vontamuri chief. The adherents of the family still regard a son of his as the lawful *desái* of Kittúr.[1] On the 29th of April 1845 Vámanráo Patvardhan of Soni died leaving no heir. Soni was part of the Miraj military grants or *saranjám*, and became Vámanráo's when the estate was divided. It now lapsed to Government. Seven villages which were added to Belgaum were brought under the Acts and Regulations by Act III. of 1863. In 1848 Belgaum received a further addition by the lapse of the Tásgaon estate. Parshurám Bháu Patvardhan died on the 8th of June 1848. On his death-bed he addressed a letter to Government praying that his widow might be allowed an heir to his military lands or *saranjám*. His prayer was not granted as he had mismanaged his estate and done nothing entitling him to special consideration. His widow tried to impose a child on Government but the imposture was detected. These Tásgaon villages, which included the lands of Saudi on the Krishna and of Yádvád, were brought under the Acts and Regulations by Act III. of 1863. On the 1st of January 1862 the Tásgaon sub-division, which had previously been included in Belgaum, was handed to Sátára. On the 19th of October 1857 Trimbakráo Appa Patvardhan, who was either called the Shedbálkar or the Kágvádkar, died leaving no son. As Government had not allowed him to adopt an heir his estate lapsed. Fifty-six villages were placed under Belgaum and for two years were managed by an agent or *kárbhári*. A mámlatdár was afterwards appointed, till, in 1863 the villages were distributed over the Gokák, Belgaum, and Athni sub-divisions, and were brought under the Acts and Regulations by Act III. of that year.

*Tásgaon Lapsed, 1848.*

*The Mutinies, 1857-58.*

In 1850 Phond Sávant's younger sons had been allowed to return to Vádi and pardoned for the part they had taken in the 1845 rebellion. Phond and his elder sons, Nána, Bába, and Hanumant *desáis* were not included in the amnesty but remained under watch in Goa. On the night of the 2nd of February 1858, taking advantage of the difficulties which the Mutinies had brought on Government, the three brothers escaped from their guard and immediately began to stir disturbances all along the forest frontier from Sávantvádi to Kánara. On the 6th of February, one or two hundred men attacked the police post at Talevádi and attempted to fire the custom-house. On the 8th Varkund was attacked and the custom-house at Dudvál was burnt to the ground. A large body of military were called out and the Brigadier at Belgaum placed two companies

[1] Bom. Gov. Sel. CXIII, 204.

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of the 28th Native Infantry with fifty Europeans at the disposal of the civil authorities. A special Commissioner was appointed to try offences against the State. The insurgents took a strong position on Darshanigudda hill on the Kánara border in the pass below Talevádi. This position was attacked by the field force on the 24th of February. It was hoped that the whole gang would be taken. But the force had left their encampment at Hemádgi at four in the afternoon of the 23rd instead of at night; their movements had been watched, and, when the top of the hill was reached, the enemy were gone. A company of the 28th Regiment of Native Infantry under Lieutenant now Major H. L. Nutt, and Lieutenant now Lieutenant-Colonel E. W. West had been sent round in advance to crown the hill under cover of the night. On their way they were fired into and a native officer was killed. At the close of 1858 peace was sufficiently restored to allow most of the regular troops to be withdrawn from Bidi. The Sávantvádi locals, the police, and the militia undertook to suppress the rising. Meanwhile villages had been plundered and several outrages and murders had taken place. Large rewards were offered for the apprehension of the leaders and measures were taken to prevent them passing into the open country. Before the end of the year the gang had been reduced to about twenty-five men who maintained themselves in the forests of Kánara and Bidi. They were led by three brothers named Rághoba or Rávba, Chintoba, and Shánta Phadnavis, while a Sidi called Bastian was a noted leader. Chintoba was killed in a combat fought on the 5th of July 1859 in the Hámod forests in Kánara. The rebel band was forty or fifty strong and was attacked by Lieutenants Giertzen and Drever with two *náiks* and twelve men. The rebels were dispersed with the loss of three men killed and several wounded. Eleven guns, eight swords, and all their ammunition were taken. The gang was finally broken on the night of the 5th of December 1859. News reached Lieutenants Giertzen and Drever that the rebels were hid somewhere in the hills near Diggi in the Dingorli forests in Kánara. They determined to surprise and capture them. Parties were posted so as to prevent their escape and Lieutenant Giertzen, with fourteen of the Belgaum police, taking the rebels' watch-fire as his guide, advanced cautiously through the forest creeping on guided by the fire across a difficult rocky slope covered with underwood. He came to within a couple of yards of the rebels before they took alarm. Lieutenant Giertzen killed Bablu, and two other men, Rávba and Shánta, who were sitting with Bablu over the fire, tried to escape but were seized by the hair and dragged out after a short struggle. This put an end to the rising.[1]

While these events were occurring in outlying parts of the district the town of Belgaum was in considerable danger. Mr. Seton Karr was at this time Collector and Magistrate at Belgaum, while General Lester, an old Artillery officer of sound judgment, commanded the Southern Division of the Army which had its head-

[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 92.

quarters at Belgaum. The Belgaum garrison had been drained of its European troops for the Persian war; and the Native Regiment which was quartered at Belgaum was the newly raised 29th. As at Kolhápur the officers of the 29th had full trust in the loyalty of their men and suspected no evil. General Lester's wise precautions probably prevented an outbreak. The fort was put in a state of defence, and its breaches repaired. His only Europeans were a battery of artillery and a depôt of Her Majesty's 64th, who had been withdrawn for service in Persia, including about thirty men fit for duty with upwards of 400 women and children. The artillery were quartered in the fort and the European and Eurasian inhabitants of the town were formed into a small volunteer corps and drilled daily. The Sáfa mosque was ordered to be closed for religious service lest its nearness to the arsenal might be a source of danger.[1] On the 10th of August 1857 the European reinforcements despatched from Bombay reached Belgaum by way of Goa. Like their brethren who came to the relief of Kolhápur they arrived in tatters, stripped of shoes almost of clothes by the rains and storms of July, but eager for work. This reinforcement enabled General Lester to seize a few of the civil and military conspirators against whom there was sufficient evidence for trial. One of these was a Musalmán *munshi*, a favourite with the officers whom he had taught. The *munshi* was found to be a disciple of the head of the Western India branch of the Wahábi sect who lived in Poona, and who was a prime instigator of the rebellion. Letters from this *munshi* to regiments at Kolhápur and other stations, full of treasonable matter, had been intercepted and furnished evidence against him. They showed how widespread was the conspiracy and how large an element in every station was ready to revolt if only they were satisfied that the movement would be general. This plot was discovered mainly through the zeal and intelligence of a police chief constable of Belgaum, a Christian convert named Mutu Kumár who afterwards received the grant of a village in acknowledgment of his services. The *munshi* was found guilty and executed, and with him an emissary from one of the chiefs who had been employed in corrupting the troops. Five men of the 29th were soon after convicted of mutiny and executed, and four were transported for life.[2] The danger passed over and no actual outbreak took place. Another important event connected with the Mutinies was the execution at Belgaum of the Bráhman chief of Nargund in Dhárwár. In 1858 the Nargund chief raised the standard of revolt against the British Government, and on the 29th of May surprised

[1] Stokes' Belgaum, 35, 94.

[2] LeGrand Jacob's Western India, 212-215. A letter from Belgaum written by a sepoy of the 29th Regiment, but purporting to be from several sepoys to their brethren of the 74th Bengal Native Infantry, was intercepted in Bombay. It was sent to Colonel Lester on the 13th of June 1857. After presenting their compliments the writer or writers went on: We are your children, do with us as it may seem best to you, in your salvation is our safety. We are all of one mind; on your intimation we shall come running. You are our father and mother. We have written a small letter, but from it comprehend much. You are the servants of Raghunáth and we your slaves. Write to us an answer as soon as you receive this. LeGrand Jacob's Western India, 215 note.

Chapter VII.
History.
The British, 1818-1884.

the Political Agent Mr. Manson at night when asleep in the village of Suriban about twelve miles north of Nargund, killed him, cut off his head, and fastened it over the gate of Nargund fort. A British force under Lieutenant-Colonel G. Malcolm marched towards Nargund, and, in the confusion which followed the capture of Nargund, the chief escaped, but was pursued and captured. He was taken to Belgaum, confined in the main guard of the fort, and was tried and sentenced to death. He was carried on a cart drawn by Mhárs through the town to Hay Stack Hill, on which the gallows were raised and was there executed.

Since 1858 the peace of the district has been unbroken. In 1864 (1st May) Kaládgi, now Bijápur, was formed into a separate Collectorate and took from Belgaum the three sub-divisions of Bádámi, Bágalkot, and Hungund.